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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION INTO THE INCIDENCE OF CREOLE FORMS IN THE WRITTEN EXPRESSION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN DOMINICA

by

PATRICIA M. MONELLE

©

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Preliminary Investigation into the Incidence of Creole forms in the Written Expression of Primary School Students in Dominica" submitted by Patricia Margaret Monelle in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

Dennis Searle

Supervisor

John E. Oster

Jean E. Robertson

Date May 5, 1980

DEDICATION

To the memory of my late father, Diogène Raphael Monelle, whose love and aspirations for his children will ever be a source of strength and inspiration.

Abstract

The immediate aim of this study was to investigate the influence of French Creole and Creole English on the written expression of primary school children in Dominica.

Data for the study were obtained from the written compositions of 81 sixth graders drawn from two schools in the Roseau area. The scripts were written in response to two composition tasks designed by the investigator, and administered by the classroom teachers in the presence of a supervisor. The data consisted of morphological, syntactical, lexical and spelling errors which seemed compatible with creole speech in Dominica. The errors were identified with a specially constructed Usage Guide consisting of items selected from the findings of previous descriptive research into the written language behaviour of speakers of non-standard dialects. These findings were supplemented by the investigator's own intuition as a native Dominican.

The recorded errors were analyzed quantitatively and linguistically under the headings of morphology, syntax, lexis and phonology. A wide range in the frequency and distribution of the error types was observed. Some creole features appeared only infrequently while others were present in the scripts of almost two-thirds of the sample. Errors in prepositional usage, verb morphology (the past tense and past participle -ed suffix), and verb tense formation were the most numerous and the most widely distributed.

Though some few students demonstrated ability to sustain standard usage in their written language, the majority seemed to alternate between standard and non-standard forms.

On the basis of ~~the~~ results, it was concluded that some of the difficulty experienced by Dominican students in English as a school subject may be related to the creole forms which characterize their ordinary speech.

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Chapter I

THE PROBLEM

Background to the Problem

Introduction

Caribbean educators find themselves increasingly confronted in the classroom with a plethora of language problems largely occasioned, it is felt, by the non-standard dialect which the majority of students have internalized as a first language. In Dominica, students' performance in recent years on the Common Entrance[1] and G.C.E. "O" Level[2] examinations in English point to tremendous wastage in the educational system. The conclusion to be drawn from the results is that the majority of children are not able to attain a satisfactory level of language proficiency to merit secondary school selection and that for many of those who do succeed, subsequent language growth in the secondary school lags far behind what is desired. The need to enrich teaching ability is obvious as one way of grappling with the situation, but a pre-requisite is the teacher's understanding of the cause of the students' difficulties. Clinchy and

---

[1] The Common Entrance examination is administered to primary school children in the age range 10-12+ for the purpose of secondary school selection.

[2] The General Certificate of Education "Ordinary" Level examination is designed for students who have completed five years of secondary schooling. It is set by the examinations syndicate of the University of Cambridge.

Rosenthal (1971:90) suggest that teachers pay great attention to their students errors for "errors are more informative than right answers". Errors indicate not only the need for further instruction but, more importantly, analysis of errors reveals what the child does in the process of reasoning.

The proposed study is a response to this message. The written compositions of grade six pupils in Dominica will be examined for specific items of non-standard[3] usage based upon 1) a description by Alleyne (1976) of the varieties of West Indian English, 2) a report on a survey of the speech of primary school children in Dominica by Carrington (1969), as well as 3) the investigator's personal knowledge of the language situation in Dominica.

Since language learning and teaching is heavily influenced by other than educational factors, language use in Dominica will be discussed against its historical, sociological and political background.

The language situation in Dominica

For about three centuries following Columbus' memorable landfall, various European nations vied for control of the Caribbean region. On the island of Dominica, all attempts at European colonisation were stubbornly resisted by the aboriginal inhabitants, the Caribs, until the arrival of French settlers from Martinique in 1632. Thus was introduced to the island the plantation system, the contact of European and African giving birth to a new synthesis culture in which a French-based creole became the dominant medium of communication not only between French and African, but between African and African in light of the West Indian slave owners' precautionary policy of mixing slaves of different linguistic backgrounds. Annexation by Britain came in 1763 and the latter half of the eighteenth century saw the island frequently changing hands between the British and the French.[4] But the British presence did not appreciably alter the linguistic behaviors of the now predominantly African population, and the French Creole[5] continued to survive.

---

[3] A non-standard dialect of English differs from the standard at the level of syntax, phonology, morphology and lexis. 'Standard' here refers to educated Dominican English which observes the rules of English grammar and syntax though not always in idiomatic expressions. Vowel scheme, stress and intonation patterns are also distinctive.

The origin and development of French Creole. In current linguistics, much controversy surrounds the genesis of the European-based pidgins and creoles spoken in and around the Caribbean area and in West Africa. One school of thought considers them all offshoots of the Portuguese pidgin which emerged in the Sub-Saharan continent as a trade language at the beginning of the European expansionist movement in the fifteenth century (Taylor, 1968; Thompson, 1961). When other European nations joined slave trading, the Portuguese pidgin was relexified and the subsequent pidgins became the mother tongue of Africans transported to the New World. Thus according to Stewart (1962:46), today's French Creole may be a relexified form of a prior language:

---

[4] Dominica changed hands for the last time in 1805 with Nelson's victory over the Napoleonic fleet at the Battle of the Saints. British rule ended in 1978 with the granting of political independence.

[5] The language that evolved in former French colonies in and around the Caribbean and in the Seychelles, Réunion and Mauritius. It has a predominantly French-based lexicon, but independent phonology and grammar. Dominican French Creole is referred to locally as Patois.

> ...it has also been noted that the Caribbean Creoles exhibit an impressive degree of correspondence in their respective basic grammars. This correspondence includes not only similarities in syntax but even cases where specific grammatical morphemes are shared in common. Furthermore, some investigators have shown that there is a similar type of correspondence between the Caribbean Creoles in general and certain pidgin and Creole languages of Asia and Africa. This strongly suggests that there is some kind of genetic relationship between the various Caribbean Creoles, and even between them and other creole-type languages spoken outside the Caribbean. The nature of this relationship is suggested by evidence that at least some of the Caribbean Creoles have undergone a kind of lexical shift, whereby the vocabulary derived from one source language has been largely replaced, through a process of widespread borrowing, by a more recent vocabulary derived from another language, while the original grammatical structure is preserved practically unchanged.

But other students of Caribbean Creole reject this theory of monogenesis, postulating instead individual development within the context of the local conditions that existed in each territory (Alleyne 1971, Bickerton 1977). Alleyne (1971:182) summarises his arguments thus:

> The argument then is that in attempting to speak English or French, Africans in Africa, as well as in the New World, interpreted English or French structural patterns in terms of native patterns. Sociocultural factors everywhere determined the degree of interference, from one territory to another and also within any single territory. This resulted in linguistic variation and instability which is characteristic of any dynamic acculturative process.

Whatever its genesis and however its development, the continued existence of French Creole alongside English as official language, is clear manifestation of the varied political and cultural history of the island.

Creole/English bilingualism. Craig (1978a) contends that most creole speech communities will tend to be bilingual speech communities, but that the status of an individual as a creole monolingual, standard monolingual or creole/standard bilingual will depend on the pattern of social stratification and the individual's position in the social hierarchy. In the Dominican context, language differences being also social and cultural markers, generally speaking, the lower the social status and educational level of an individual, the more likely he is to be a French Creole monolingual. Consequently, creole/standard bilingualism tends not to be evenly distributed among the social classes and it is the French Creole rather than the standard dialect of English which is the more widely diffused, proficiency in English being the preserve of the upper classes and the educated. This may be due to the fact that

1. since social mobility is generally upwards, those who move from the lower classes take the Creole with them;
2. a significantly larger proportion of the upper classes achieve proficiency in Creole through contact with Creole speakers as compared with Creole speakers vis-à-vis the standard;

3. political maturity has been accompanied by greater exploitation of the French Creole or Patois in literature, drama and song, in advertising, and on radio and television resulting in more receptive societal attitudes towards its use.

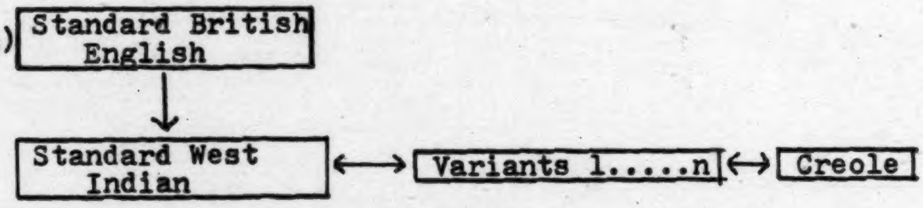
But such creole/standard categorisation belies the language situation which truly obtains on the island. To describe the course felt taken by Jamaican Creole - i.e. the emergence of a continuous range of speech varieties in result of Jamaican Creole gradually merging with Standard English, slowly changing over time and acquiring many of the features of Standard English ___ De Camp (1971) used the term "post-creole continuum". The term designates a speech community where the outgrowth of the coexistence of a creole language (the basilect) and an official language (the acrolect) has been an intermediate area of language exhibiting features of both the creole and the standard. Commenting on the conditions which facilitate such a phenomenon, De Camp (1971:29-30) points out that

> It would appear that a speech community can reach post-creole status only under two conditions. First, the dominant official language must be the same as the creole vocabulary base; if it is different, then the creole either persists as a separate language with little change (e.g. the English creoles of Surinam and the French creole of St. Lucia and Grenada) or becomes extinct, as Negerhollands is now doing. Second, the social system, though perhaps still sharply stratified, must provide for sufficient social mobility and sufficient corrective pressures

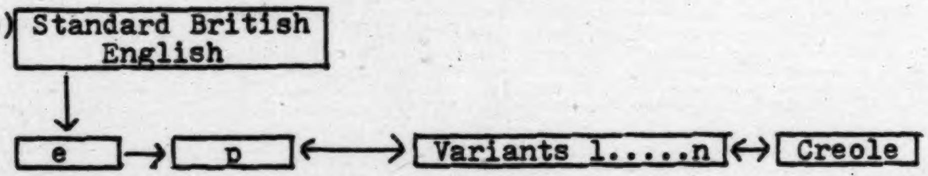
> from above in order for the standard language to exert real influence on creole speakers; otherwise the creole and the standard remain sharply separated as they do in the French areas. These corrective pressures (radio, television, internal migration, education, etc.) do not operate uniformly on all speakers, of course; otherwise the result would be a merger of the creole with the standard rather than a continuum. Rather, the educational and occupational opportunities and the necessity of learning a more nearly standard variety of English in order to get a better job all act on individual speakers, pulling them in differing degrees toward the standard end of the continuum.

A dialect continuum may therefore be conceptualised in terms of progression from basilect to acrolect through a series of minimal structural shifts. Craig (1971) describes the continuum as "a dynamic interrelationship of forms of speech" (p.371) illustrated thus:

(1a)



(1b)



Source: Craig, D.R. In: Pidginization and Creolization of Languages. Edited by D. Hymes. Cambridge University Press, 1971, p.372.

with p(1b) the creole component in SWI, and the two-way flow of influence the interaction between societal attitudes and values and creole speech. Because this mesolectal phenomenon is also characteristic of language use in Dominica, it is difficult to accept De Camp's assertion that "the creole and the standard remain sharply separated" in areas where the two do not share a lexical relationship.[6] Any of the following five English variants would be typical Dominican speech:

I going town.
I going in town.
I'm going in town.
I going to town.
I'm going to town.

Sentence 1 is almost telegraphic, being composed only of content words. The use of the preposition 'in' in sentence 2 may be interpreted either as a literal translation of Patois /en vil/ ('in or to town' - Eng.) or as the first shift towards the acrolect; the appearance of the copula in sentence 3 as well as the replacement of 'in' by 'to' in sentence 4 represent still further structural shifts. Presumably then, the second condition mentioned by De Camp is far more crucial to the emergence of a dialect continuum.

Language use in a continuum situation. Viewed within the system of values which West Indian societies have inherited from the slave plantation system, the concept of a speech continuum is brought into sharper focus. English is the "official" language: it is the language of the school and the preferred medium of formal and official business. Moreover, the absence of a standardised orthography for the French Creole makes English the medium for all normal writing purposes, e.g. signs, correspondence and newspapers. The French Creole on the other hand, having been so closely linked with slavery, "was ascribed the negative evaluation given to all items of slave culture" (Alleyne, 1961:3). Everywhere in the Caribbean "there exists....a set of clichés which deprecate the Creole and thereby imply the superiority of the Standard". (Stewart, 1962:42)[7] Stemming from such societal attitudes are an early awareness of "appropriateness" of language use and a constant striving by the lower social classes towards acquisition of English, the latter being recognised as one way of achieving higher social status. In his attempts at less familiar but more socially preferred forms of speech - phonological, morpho-syntactical or lexico-semantic - the individual produces varieties of speech intermediate between his norm and the target, giving to the continuum extreme inter-idiolectal variability. With "bilingual competence"[8] (i.e. facility in French Creole and an English variant or in Standard and a variant in the intermediate zone) comes code-switching often in the course of a single speech situation, according to the social demands that impinge upon the situation. For example, two individuals may begin a discussion in French Creole but shift to an English variant upon the arrival of a stranger or, in the school context, of a teacher; the conversation at a party in a middle-class suburb may evince gradual basipetal shifts as the feeling of conviviality increases. Thus code-switching adds a new feature to the dialect continuum viz. intra-idiolectal variability.

---

[6] David De Camp, "The study of pidgin and creole languages." In: Pidginization and Creolization of Languages. Edited by Hymes, D. London: Cambridge University Press, 1971. p.29

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[7] See William Stewart, "Creole languages in the Caribbean". In: Study of the Role of Second Languages in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Edited by Rice, Frank A., Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1962, pp. 42-43.

1. Creole is not a language.
2. Creole has no grammar; it is a "made up" form of speech.
3. Creole is a corruption of (the lexically related) Standard.
4. Creole has no uniformity of usage.
5. Creole is a mixture of many languages.

Some non-standard features of spoken English in Dominica. From the foregoing discussion of Creole/English interaction and the wide range of language varieties thereby produced, several distinctive phonological, structural and lexical features may be anticipated.

---

[8] See Dennis Craig, "Language education in a post-creole society". In Case Studies in Bilingual Education. Edited by Spolsky, B. and Cooper, R.L. Rowley, Mass. : Newbury House Publishers, 1978, pp. 407-408. The author contends that in Caribbean post-creole societies 1) the mutual unintelligibility of the Creole and the Standard place them in a bilingual relationship; 2) the mesolectal varieties are in a bidialectal relationship with either extreme of the continuum because the Creole elements make communication possible with the Creole speaker while the Standard elements facilitate communication with the Standard speaker.

PHONOLOGY

Note: For the purposes of this exercise only those phonological variations which could give rise to misinterpretations or which could be the potential cause of spelling difficulties will be discussed.

1. Vowels

The French Creole vocalic system does not contain the Standard English contrasts /i/-/ɪ/, /ʊ/-/u/, /ɔ/-/ʌ/, so that speakers seldom pay attention to them in their use of English. Hence among the more immediately perceptible features of Dominican speech are the following replacements:

(a) high front tense /i/ for high front lax /ɪ/
(b) high back tense /u/ for high back lax /ʊ/
(c) mid lax back /ɔ/ for mid central /ʌ/

2. Consonants

The interdental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ and the velar nasal /ŋ/ do not exist in French Creole as distinct phonological elements. In Creole English variants, /f/ replaces /θ/ showing a shift in point of articulation fron dental to labio-dental e.g. /θru/ → /fru/; /boθ/ → /bof/ ; /d/ replaces /ð/ in initial and medial position representing a shift in point and type of articulation, from dental fricative to alveolar stop e.g. /ðɛm/ → /dɛm/ ; /əðə/ → /ʌdʌ/ ,and the labiodental fricative /v/ substitutes for /ð/ in final position e.g. /briːð/ → /briv/ . In the suffix /ɪŋ/ , velar nasal /ŋ/ is replaced by alveolar nasal /n/ e.g. /rolɪŋ/ → /rolɪn/.

Consonant Clusters

Whereas initial and medial cluster combinations occur in the word structure of French Creole, final cluster combinations are not permissible. Creolized English evidences reductions like

/-ft/ → /f/ e.g. /lɛft/ → /lɛf/
/-st/ → /s/ e.g. /mɪst/ → /mis/
/-nd/ → /n/ e.g. /maɪnd/ → /maɪn/
/-ndz/ → /nz/ e.g. /bændz/ → /banz/
/-ld/ → /l/ e.g. /bold/ → /bol/
/-ldz/ → /lz/ e.g. /bɪldz/ → /bilz/

STRUCTURE

1. Noun Morphology

1.1. Plural

Standard English requires inflection of the noun form to indicate plurality. The French Creole noun is invariable,[9] the marker /se/ plus a post-positioned determiner /la/ or /ã/ functioning as the pluralizing agent. Within the French Creole/English interaction zone, pluralization of nouns is not indicated where it is apparent from the context e.g. a numeral or quantifier preceding the noun. Where the context may be ambiguous, pluralization is noted through the additive /dɛm/ or /an dɛm/ e.g. /fri bot/ but /di bot an dɛm/.

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[9] Semantically, the unmarked noun in French Creole corresponds to the English generic e.g. /mango ka baɪ/ = mangoes are plentiful.

1.2. Possession

Creole expresses this relationship by juxtaposition of the two nouns in the order of possessed/possessor. In the English variants the word order of English is observed but not the affixation of the inflections /s/, /z/ or /iz/ as for example in "the man hat". When the second noun (the object possessed) is deleted, possession is expressed through the use of 'own' e.g. "that is John own".

2. Pronominal Forms

A comparison of the pronominal system of Standard English and pronominal usage in Dominica would indicate certain deviant forms (See Table 1).

Table 1

Comparison of S.E. pronominal forms with Dominican forms.

Standard English	Dominican forms
you (plural)	all you
mine	my own
yours	your own
his	his own
hers	her own
ours	our own
yours (plural)	all you own
theirs	their own

The second person plural 'you' becomes 'all you' while the morpheme 'own' is added to the possessive adjective. With the exception of 'all you', all the forms would be used in an emphatic sense so that one would get "their own" but not "their own books". Carrington (1969:263) suggests that

> That reinterpretation may well be facilitated by two factors.
> a) There is a notable absence of contrastive word stress in Creole which may limit the perception of the emphatic nature of the 'infix' own.
> b) The Possessive Pronouns of Creole are themselves, forms compounded by the sequence of demonstrative pronoun and personal pronoun:
> e.g. /sɑ ɑ u/ 'yours' = /sɑ ɑ + u/

3. Verbal System

3.1. Concord

The invariable Creole verb form finds its correspondence in English utterances in the use of the uninflected verb form (present tense) with a third person singular subject as e.g. in 'Lisa like to skip'. Whereas the sequence 'it have' and the use of 'does' as an auxiliary with subjects other than the third person singular are apparent instances of concord deviation, 'it have' is equivalent to 'there is/are', while 'does' functions as an invariable auxiliary to indicate present tense, habitual aspect.

3.2. Present tense

Non-progressive aspect. It has already been pointed out that the sequence 'does'+Verb indicates habitual action. But the same may also be conveyed through the Verb-ing form e.g. 'Mr. Charles teaching History - Mr. Charles teaches History'. The Verb-ing form is also used for action that is non-habitual, e.g. 'To make guava jelly, you putting the guavas to boil....' - 'To make guava jelly, put the guavas to boil....'.

Progressive aspect. Standard English expresses progression through the combination 'be' + present participle form. French Creole makes no use of auxiliaries, indicating progressive activity through a pre-positioned marker /ka/ e.g. /i ka vini/ 'he is coming'. Creolized English observes the present participle form, but omits the auxiliary to produce 'he coming'.

3.3. Past tense (completive aspect)

Where Standard English requires morphological change to the verb-base with optional use of an auxiliary, in French Creole tense relationships are either embedded within the context e.g. /mwɛ̃ vini jɛ/ = 'I came yesterday', or indicated by the pre-positioned marker /te/ e.g. /i te pati lɛ mwɛ̃ wive/ 'He had left when I arrived'. The creolized English form is characterised by both these features. Rf. 'I see her last night'; 'I did leave already when....'; 'I did (was) say no'; 'They did (was) agree'. (Note that 'did' and 'was' operate as invariable tense markers.)

3.4. Predication

The Creole English form deviates from the standard where the complement is an adjective or adverb phrase.

Usually the copula is omitted in non-past sequences as, for example, in 'Mama well'; 'the glass on the table'.

3.5. Other

Two other distinctive structural features worthy of mention are

1. reduplication for emphasis (e.g. 'Me myself I don't care' - 'Quite frankly I don't care'), and
2. the inverted sentence (e.g. 'Is go I going' - 'I'm leaving now'), both features of the French Creole.

LEXICON

Bernstein (1966) postulates that shared referential situations give rise to restricted codes of which one of the principal features is a reduction in the range of lexical variety. Since the social contexts of Bernstein's 'restricted code' find their correlate in Caribbean communities, the theory is not without some relevance to the area. One expected consequence of limited vocabulary growth would be repetition of a word in a sentence with changes in meaning and grammatical function. This is illustrated in the sentence "As he go to catch it, it go through the hole'. Functionally 'go' is in the first instance a modal, in the second a main verb, while its semantic content shifts from "was about" to "escaped".

Summary

The first language of many Dominicans is the French Creole which came to the island with the slave plantation system, but the use of an English dialect is becoming more widespread, English being the language of the school, the media and commerce. Interaction of the Creole and societal pressures on the lower classes and the less educated to acquire the "official" language produced an interlanguage (Selinker, 1972) which has become fossilized. These intermediate varieties of speech display extreme inter-idiolectal and intra-idiolectal variability. Hence language use in Dominica can be more aptly described in terms of a speech continuum with Patois at one end and the formal speech of an educated Dominican at the other, with a number of variants in between. These factors imply that the Dominican child is in a linguistic situation of the kind described by Stewart (1964a) in which English is neither a native nor a foreign language. Upon entering school, he brings with him a level of language competence commensurate with his ability, maturity level and early linguistic environment.

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study can be examined from the point of view of the following:

The instructional program

In view of the language situation outlined in the preceding section, it is obvious that language instruction in Dominican schools largely depends for its effectiveness upon the program's being designed to meet the specific needs of Dominican students. A systematic analysis of their written errors seems one way of assessing these needs (Corder, 1967; Nemser, 1971). The knowledge therein derived may then be exploited in programme planning to enable the learner to learn more efficiently. It is anticipated that the findings of this study will be of some value in the next revision of the primary school English syllabus.

The classroom teacher

While it is doubtless that many experienced teachers have recognised and categorised the more frequent errors of their students, this study aims to go beyond compilation by seeking possible causes for the learner's mistakes. Commenting on teacher attitude to errors, Clinchy and Rosenthal (1971:93) state:

> The mere fact that a child fails does not tell us how to go about designing instruction that will help him. A common use of error is to count the number of mistakes a child makes on a test and, on the basis of the sum, assign him to a particular ability group; however, the sheer quantity of errors the child makes - in reading, for example - does not tell us how to teach him to read. We need to know what it is that prevents him from reading well; and to find out, we must examine the nature, as well as the number, of his errors. For just as there are many correct and incorrect paths to success, there are many different routes to failure. If we treat all errors alike, we do not come to grips with the child's specific source of difficulty.

It is hoped that the results of this study will demonstrate to the teacher that error analysis, guided by current educational theory, provides informative data on the nature of a student's difficulties, and thus facilitates the task of planning corrective measures to deal with these difficulties.

Teacher preparation

The Dominica Teachers College is committed to a programme of teacher education that will equip teachers with those skills best suited to dealing with the language difficulties of school children in Dominica. There is much need for data of the kind proposed in this study if the college is to realise its goal.

Future research

If indeed some of the errors in the written expression of the sample are dialect-related, then this study could provide a point of departure for a more systematic investigation of the language habits - oral and written - of the primary school population in Dominica.

Statement of the Problem

What features of Dominican creole speech can be identified in the written expression of primary school children in Dominica?

Purpose of the Study

This study is aimed at

1. investigating the occurrence of features of Dominican creole speech in the written discourse of primary school children in Dominica;
2. analysing the linguistic nature of these dialectal features where they occur.

From the information derived will be drawn a set of implications for instructional practices.

Scope of the Study

This study focuses primarily on student errors in the areas of morphology and syntax. Unusual lexical items and such spelling errors as are deemed related to the phonological system of French Creole will also be included. Content, organization, style and the mechanics of the written form fall outside the area of interest.

Assumptions

Research in second language learning emphasises the importance of paying attention to the learner's errors, since errors indicate the areas of difficulty, signal the hypotheses which the learner is testing, and provide evidence about the learner's approximative systems (Corder, 1967, 1971; Nemser, 1971). Guided by these conclusions, errors in the written compositions of the subjects are analysed on the premise that in so doing, the nature of the students' morphological, syntactical, lexical or spelling (some) difficulties may be pinpointed.

It is further assumed that the data used in this study are examinable and relevant to the research question on the grounds that

1. since the school rejects dialect usage in written language in favour of the standard, students at the grade 6 level would immediately perceive the linguistic constraints of a classroom task;
2. the compositions were written in a normal classroom situation;
3. the students received no assistance from any source during the actual writing period;
4. the directions were clearly understood.

Limitations of the Study

The findings of classroom research can never be definitively conclusive on account of the impossibility of maintaining complete control over methodological and teacher variables. Moreover, this study has been confined to a sample of students not representative of the entire primary school population (See Chapter III). Consequently the results of the study will not be generalizable beyond the sample.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

acrolect	- the topmost dialect in the local socio-linguistic hierarchy (from acro - "apex" plus - lect as in dialect). (Stewart 1964b:15)
aspect	- indication through the verb form, often with the help of an auxiliary, as to whether an event is to be regarded as a single point on a time continuum, a repetition of points, or a single duration with a beginning, a middle and an end. (Frank, 1972:47)
auxiliary	- a word in a verb phrase which acts as a marker of tense or aspect, or signals questions and negatives, or adds semantic content such as ability, possibility or necessity (modal auxiliary).
basilect	- the lowest dialect in the speech hierarchy (from basi - "bottom"
basipetal	- shifting in the direction of the basilect (Stewart 1964b:15)
concord	- a system of grammatical patterning of words in order to express specific relationships between these words. Also synonymous with 'agreement'
content word	- a noun, verb, adjective or adverb having semantic content and conveying information (Cazden 1972: Glossary).
corpus	- a sample of linguistic data collected for analysis.
count noun	- a noun that can be pluralized usually by adding one of the structural elements -s or -es.

creole	- a mother tongue that began in a pidgin, and has not come to be identified with any previously existing traditional language... the process of creolization presupposes and entails considerable enrichment and regulation of the original pidgin. (Taylor, 1968:608-609)
dialect	- a way of speaking a language with differences in vocabulary, syntax and pronunciation.
error	- in this study a written form which violates the morphological, syntactic, semantic or lexical rules of the standard dialect of English.
error analysis	- the compilation and classification of the mistakes made by a group of students.
fossilization	- linguistic items, rules and subsystems which the foreign learner tends to keep in his interlanguage relative to a particular target language (Selinker, 1972).
French Creole	- the language that evolved in former French colonies in and around the Caribbean and in the Seychelles, Réunion and Mauritius. It has a predominantly French-based lexicon but independent phonology and grammar. Dominican French Creole is referred to locally as 'Patois'.
grammar	- a set of statements saying how a language works. It includes e.g. a description of the principles for combining words to form grammatical sentences (Langacker, 1967:6).
heuristics	- an operating principle (Slobin, 1973). Synonymous with 'strategy'.
idiolect	- variety of language as used by a single individual.
inflection	- a structural unit which has no value on its own but which, added to a word, is functionally contrastive.

interference	- the adverse effect of features of a known language or dialect or the acquisition or use of another language or dialect. Also referred to as "interlingual errors" and "intersystemic interference".
lexical error	- the use of a word in a manner that does not accord with accepted English usage.
mesolect	- a range of language varieties displaying features of both the acrolect and the basilect.
morphological error	- the use or non-use of those paradigmatic elements which control the fine distinctions of meaning in utterances.
morphology	- the system of rules governing the internal structure of words.
non-standard English	- a dialect of English which differs from the standard at the level of syntax, phonology, morphology and lexis.
phonology	- the sound system of a language.
pidgin	- a contact vernacular, normally not the native language of any of its speakers. It is used in trading or in any situation requiring communication between persons who do not speak each other's native languages. It is characterized by a limited vocabulary, an elimination of many grammatical devices such as number and gender, and a drastic reduction of redundant features. (De Camp, 1971: 15).
standard	- here refers to educated Dominican English; it observes the rules of English grammar and syntax though not always in idiomatic expressions. Vowel scheme, stress and intonation patterns are also distinctive.

syntactic error - a deviation from the rules of syntax.

syntax - the system of rules which governs the ordering of words into sentences.

T-unit - a grammatically independent clause with any of its modifiers (Hunt, 1970).

written discourse - the representing of feelings, thoughts and ideas through the graphic symbols of language.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The general area of concern of this study is the significance of syntactic deviations in written expression. More specifically, the study seeks to explore the relationship between such deviations and non-standard speech forms. As a point of departure, the psychological perspective of Vygotsky and the linguistic perspective of James Britton as regards the speech/writing relationship have been adopted. Having previously established that the majority of Dominican students first acquire French Creole and/or a non-standard variety of English equivalent to Selinker's (1972) concept of a fossilized Interlanguage, and that the standard occupies a somewhat nebulous position being neither a native nor a foreign language, the significance of learner "errors" is examined from the points of view of both first language acquisition and of second language learning. It is recognized that to reduce the complex language situation described in Chapter I to the classical linguistic distinction of Language A vs. Language B constitutes an oversimplification if only for these two reasons:

1. Language A - the non-standard variety - and Language B - the standard dialect - are abstractions created to make generalisations possible;

2. Every Dominican exhibits in his speech a range of dialectal forms between theoretical points A and B.

But oversimplification does not negate the disparity that exists between the structures of standard usage and the structures employed by the majority of students in their spontaneous speech.

The chapter concludes with a review of reported research into the influence of non-standard English dialects on written discourse.

Speech and Writing

One of the great academic debates during the life of L. Semenovich Vygotsky, the noted Soviet psychologist, was the relationship between instruction and mental development. From a series of experiments, Vygotsky derived certain theoretical insights into the development of oral and written language during school age.[10] It was observed that although the vocabulary and grammatical forms for writing were the same as for oral speech, the schoolchild's written language lagged behind his oral language. This discrepancy, Vygotsky explains, stems from "the abstract quality of written language" which requires that the child "disengage himself from the sensory aspect of speech and replace words by images of words" (p.98).

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[10] L. S. Vygotsky. Thought and Language. Edited and translated by Eugenia Hanfmann and Gertrude Vakar. Cambridge, Mass: M.I.T. Press, 1962, p.97.

Speech is essentially a spontaneous act, and the normal speech context a dynamic situation which takes its direction from the cumulative comments of both speaker and listener. By contrast, the remoteness of the writing act - "Writing is also speech without an interlocutor, addressed to an absent or an imaginary person or to no one in particular (p.99) - requires that we "create the situation" and "represent it to ourselves" (p.99).

Moreover, written language demands objective analysis of what one is doing while one is doing it, "because its relationship to inner speech is different from that of oral speech" (p.99). Oral speech precedes inner speech while "written speech" is dependent upon inner speech for its existence. Vygotsky suggests that all of the infant's early speech is social, but that at a certain age speech function becomes differentiated into "communicative speech" i.e. towards others, and "egocentric speech" or "speech for oneself", a kind of thinking aloud. This egocentric speech gradually becomes semantically individuated and syntactically loosened, e.g. predicates with no stated subjects. In time, egocentric speech gives way to "inner speech". Thus inner speech is not communicative speech internalised, but speech that has been freed from the restrictions of syntax and commonly - accepted word meanings. It is this inner speech which must be translated by a process of syntactic elaboration into written language that is intelligible to a wider audience, a particularly strenuous task, since "the change from maximally compact inner speech to maximally detailed written speech requires what might be called deliberate semantics - deliberate structuring of the web of meaning." (p.100). It is the deliberateness of the writing act which produces the discrepancy, for whereas the child has proficiency in the spontaneous, unconscious activity of speech, he lacks skill in the abstract, deliberate activity of writing. The latter begins to be accomplished once the child, through instruction in grammar and writing, learns to apply consciously the skills which he unconsciously uses in speech.

James Britton (1970, 1975) presents a somewhat complementary viewpoint. In Sapir's theory that all speech is essentially expressive, but that some of the expressive quality is sacrificed when communicative demands require greater explicitness,[11] Britton saw a link between speech and writing. Sapir had categorised language function into the expressive and the referential, but Britton extended the notion of the referential to include the transactional and the poetic. Thus within Britton's model of language use, the expressive refers to language that remains close to the speaker and is fully comprehensible only to one who knows the speaker and shares his context; the language of getting things done (e.g. reports, theories, directions) is transactional, and language which is an artfully constructed embodiment of a writer's feelings and beliefs is poetic. The transactional and the poetic require greater explicitness on the writer's part.

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[11] E. Sapir. Culture, Language and Personality. Berkely, Ca.: University of California Press, 1961, pp.8-20.

Largely in result of his experiences during a 3-year study of the writing samples of boys and girls in secondary schools in Britain, Britton concluded that "the writing of young children is often very like written down speech".[12] He contends that even mature users of language, as a first stage in handling a writing task, verbalise as they write, so that a preliminary draft evidences many of the expressive features of ordinary speech. That one is bound to draw upon his speech resources -vocabulary and language patterns- when he wants to write is evident, maintains Britton. It is in the evaluative stage of the process, the stage of proofreading, editing and reformulating of sentences that economy of words and strict precision are achieved. Since the ability to furnish accurate and specific reference without the inclusion of personal self-revealing features (the transactional mode) or to present the self through a complex and subtle verbal construct (the poetic mode) follows a gradual path, much of the writing produced in the primary grades is transitional between the expressive and transactional or between the expressive and the poetic. The expressive features of speech are always present, even though factors such as the demands of the situation (e.g. a personal letter vs. a written report of an experiment), social conventions and the writer's linguistic experience will determine the degree of similarity between speech and writing.

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[12] J. Britton et al. The Development of Writing Abilities (11-18). London: Macmillan Education Ltd., 1975, p.82.

To sum up the arguments of Vygotsky and Britton, speech and writing are alike in that the referents and ideas are shared. Although in writing one is bound to draw upon the vocabulary and language patterns of speech, writing almost never reflects speech in an exact way. Written language requires symbolization of sounds with written signs (i.e. a second degree of symbolization) so that the young writer may avoid many of the grammatical and lexical items which he unconsciously utilises in speech. Secondly, unless the context is shared by both writer and reader, written language requires greater explication of meaning. This deliberate abstract skill comes only gradually to a young writer with the intervention of classroom instruction in writing. In the interim, his written language fluctuates beteeen the expressive and the transactional and between the expressive and the poetic.

Since the permanence of the written form facilitates revision and editing in a manner not permitted by the fleeting nature of the spoken, might it reasonably be expected that written language will contain fewer errors[13] than speech?

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[13] The term "error" is here used in a descriptive not in a pejorative sense. See Chapter I, definitions.

How should syntactic and morphological errors at the Grade 6 level be interpreted particularly when the wider speech community exhibits the continuous covariation described in Chapter I?

The Significance of Errors in First Language Learning

Among researchers it is commonly assumed that by age five, the child whose home language is a standard dialect of English, is able to utilise (at least in a rudimentary fashion) all the basic syntactic structures of adult grammar. Simple declarative sentences, negative, interrogative and imperative structures, the morphological markers for tense, number, person and possession are all in evidence (rf. Klima & Bellugi, 1966; Cazden, 1968; Menyuk, 1963). The period from two to five is marked by rapid progress in syntactic development, and the changes in the child's grammatical system are easily observable. After age five, there is a marked decrease in the rate of acquisition of syntactic structures, and differences between child grammar and adult grammar are no longer so easily discernible. Thus much of research in the area of acquisition of syntax is centred around the child before age five.

Among the few who have addressed themselves to the question of syntactic development beyond age five are Templin (1957), Menyuk (1963), Loban (1963) and Tanz (1974). Templin (1957:96) views "grammatical inaccuracies" in the young child as "indications of growth toward more mature forms of expression". All of the main grammatical deviations tabulated for the three to eight-year-olds in the study (with the exception of slang expressions) decreased as age increased. Menyuk (1969:18) observes that until and probably beyond age seven, the child's continuing syntactic development takes place in several forms i.e. "use of elaborated forms of basic structures and use of differing types of transformational operations, observations of selectional restrictions, and elimination of certain approximations to complete sets of rules." According to Loban (1963:20) the difficulties of seventh, eighth and ninth graders in maintaining consistency of tense in their written discourse is "not a problem of usage (habit) but a deeper problem - remembering to be consistent, to be clear and unambiguous". Citing Slobin's (1973) cognitive strategies underlying language acquisition, Tanz (1974) proposes two explanations for pronominal case error among children learning English. (1) In substituting the objective for the nominative form (the more prevalent pronominal error), the child is operating by the cognitive principle of avoiding exceptions. Since in English the objective pronoun form occurs in a wider range of linguistic contexts than does the nominative, the child first hypothesizes that the basic pronoun form is the object form and only later seeks out exceptions viz. the nominative form. (2) The principle that "a child will begin to mark a semantic notion earlier if its morphological realization is more salient perceptually" (Slobin 1973:202) also pertains to larger units of sentences. The objective form is selected as the basic form because its usual position at the end of a constituent like a prepositional phrase or a sentence renders it more amenable to detection, and consequently to learning, than does the initial sentence position of the nominative form.

Through all of the above seems represented a certain commonality of thought viz. that in the first language context, structural permutations in the pre-adolescent are milestones on the road to syntactic perfection, developmental features which will gradually disappear with increasing age and linguistic maturity. Consequently in so far as speakers of non-standard English dialects may be considered native English speakers, some of the syntactical 'errors' in their written discourse may be developmental.

The Significance of Errors in Second Language Learning

In second language learning, 'errors' in speech and writing had traditionally been considered evidence of the learner's incomplete mastery of linguistic rules, and of the need for further explanation and instruction, until the errors had been eradicated. Little attention was devoted to the deeper mental processes underlying the particular deviation. Subsequent upon Uriel Weinreich's Languages in Contact and Einar Haugen's two volume work, The Norweigian Language in America, a new point of view emerged.

Interlingual interference

Interference theory in verbal learning and memory research was based on the assumption that where two response systems are acquired in connection with similar or identical stimuli, competition occurs, and the stronger response is given (Postman, 1961). With the emergence of the notion of language as a system (Weinreich, 1953), learning a second language or dialect could now be viewed as the juxtaposition of two systems. At the points where the two systems differ, there is likely to be intersystemic interference. Consequently, utterances in the target language may exhibit elements of the first at the level of phonology, syntax, lexicon and semantics.

The notion of intersystemic interference appealed to linguists and teachers alike, nothwithstanding Weinreich's caveat that, for "more complete findings", an interdisciplinary approach was preferable to a purely linguistic one, in order to account for the intervention of social and psychological factors in language learning. The enthusiasm generated by Weinreich's work is reflected in such remarks as:

> ...individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to speak the language....and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.....as practised by natives (Lado, 1957:2).

> One of the major reasons for failure in second language learning is interference due to structural differences between the first and second language (Ferguson in Stockwell & Bowen, 1965:V).

> On a phonological, syntactical and semantic level, interference from the mother tongue may be taking place. A contrastive analysis will show up the points of difference and conflict, and it is to these points that language teaching should pay particular attention (Kirkwood, 1966:176).

The incidence of intersystemic interference finds some support in the literature. Duškova (1969) cites interference from Czech in the responses of a homogeneous sample of Czech adult learners of English. Concatenations like "I met there some Germans" (with the direct object positioned after the adverbial modifier) and "The solution suggested in this paper we cannot take as definitive" (with the direct object before the finite verb) were, in the researcher's opinion, clearly traceable to Czech word-order patterns. At the level of sentence construction, interference from Czech was evident in the use of a verbal noun followed by a genitive, misuse of prepositions, omission of articles, confusion of the passive and the active voice, and difficulty with modals and the English tense system.

From studies of English errors produced by adult speakers coming from diverse linguistic backgrounds, Richards (1971a) concludes that "interference from the mother tongue is clearly a major source of difficulty in second language learning". Cited as evidence of interference from French syntax (Richards 1971b) are e.g. "has allowed to capitalist man" following French structure "a permis au capitaliste de", "the money" reflecting French article usage as in "pour investir l'argent" and "have the possibility to do great profits", a mapping unto English of the French construction "ont la possibilité de faire de grands profits".

George (1972) posits that many of the errors of English L_2 learners have their provenance in the method of selection and organization of course content and teacher methodology. But in the initial stages, the learner's mother tongue may promote or hinder the learning of features of English to the extent that such features have correspondences in the first language. In other words, to use the terminology of psychology, first language features cause "proactive inhibition"[14] of the learning of some features of English. George attributed one-third of the errors in his students' theses to the structures of their first language.

To the extent, however, that interference from the mother tongue has failed to explain some of the errors of the second language learner, interference theory has provoked extensive debate and other explanations have been sought.

Learner systems and processing strategies

Greater recognition of the autonomy which resides in the learners themselves has been proposed, for to regard the learner's errors "as the term interference implies, exclusively as intrusive L_s (source language) elements interrupting the normal flow of L_t (target language)....is less rewarding....than viewing them first in terms of the learner system to which they pertain".[15] This focus on the learner's performance as he attempts to internalize the structure of a new language is reflected in such terms as "transitional competence" (Corder, 1967); "idiosyncratic dialects" (Corder, 1971); "approximative systems" (Nemser, 1971); "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972).

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[14] i.e. previous learning 'acts forward' on a subsequent learning task.

Deriving from the assumption that the procedures or strategies of the second language learner are fundamentally the same as those of the child acquiring his first language, Corder proposes, as a working hypothesis, that a learner's systematic errors[16] reveal his underlying knowledge of the language to date i.e. they reflect his "transitional competence" (Corder. 1967). At no time during the learning process are his utterances generated by the rules of his native language or of the target language. Rather they are generated by the rules of his own "idiosyncratic dialect" (Corder, 1971). The second language learner is primarily engaged in hypothesizing about the target language, but in the process he commits errors related to the systems of his mother tongue. But such errors reflect not so much the inhibitory effect of the mother tongue as his "strategies of learning" in his attempts to deal with new linguistic data. Corder's contention is that just as observations of first language acquisition in childhood had yielded insightful notions which enabled psycholinguists to speculate about the nature of the processes involved in language learning, so too could psycholinguistic analysis of the systematic errors of the second language learner serve both general linguistic theory and the pragmatic considerations of the classroom:

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[15] W. Nemser. Approximative systems of foreign language learners. IRAL 9, 116-117 (1971)

[16] i.e. errors which recur and are not the product of chance circumstances like memory lapses, fatigue and strong emotion. (Corder, 1967:166).

> ....there could be no reason to engage in error-analysis unless it served one or both of two objects. Firstly to elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language. Secondly the applied object of enabling the learner to learn more efficiently by expoiting our knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes. The second objective is clearly dependent on the first. We cannot make any principled use of his idiosyncratic sentences to improve teaching unless we understand how and why they occur. (Corder, 1971:158).

Corder's "transitional competence" and "idiosyncratic dialect" find an equivalent in Nemser's "approximative system". Nemser's thesis is that the second language learner is guided, not by the rules of L_s (source language) or L_t (target language), but by an independent system "frequently changing with atypical rapidity and subject to radical reorganization, through the massive intrusion of new elements as learning proceeds". (Nemser, 1971:116-117). Hence direct and systematic investigation of the learner's actual performance would have interest for a general theory of language learning, and provide for the classroom teacher concrete information on learner behaviour of immediate utility in teaching and course development.

Through a non-contrastive analysis of errors in English which seemed common to learners of different linguistic backgrounds, Richards (1971) arrives at two broad categories of errors not deriving from transfer from the learner's mother tongue. These he labels "intralingual" and "developmental" errors, reflecting not "the learner's inability to separate two languages", but "the learner's competence at a particular stage",[17] For the origins of such errors, one had but to look to the structure of English itself and to teaching and learning strategies. "Intralingual" errors "reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply",[18] while "developmental" errors illustrate the learner's involvement in formulating and testing hypotheses.

George (1972) advances the argument that a substantial proportion of learner errors result from the teaching/learning process. The learner makes inductive generalizations about the target language system based on incoming linguistic data; exposure to only limited data induces overgeneralizations or analogical errors. Moreso faulty teaching techniques and/or materials are also responsible for the learner's false hypothesizing, a phenomenon which Stenson (1975) refers to as induced errors.

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[17] J.C. Richards. A non-contrastive approach to error analysis. English Language Teaching 25:205 (1971)

[18] op. cit. p.206.

Selinker (1972) postulates that second language learning after puberty activates a "psychological structure.....latent in the brain".[19] Within this psychological structure are located "interlingual identifications"[20] and the processes and strategies underlying second language learning. When the learner attempts to communicate in the target language (TL), his sentences are not identical to those that a native speaker of the TL would be expected to produce, nor do they exactly translate those having the same meaning in his native language (NL). The actual realized utterances are guided by a "separate linguistic system" or "interlanguage" (IL), the combined product of five central psycholinguistic processes:

1. Language transfer - some elements of IL result from NL transfer;
2. Transfer of training - some slements of IL result from teaching induced (incorrect) hypotheses about the TL;
3. Strategies of second language learning - some elements of IL result from the learner's approach to the material to be learned.
4. Strategies of second language communication - some elements of IL result from the learner's way of trying to communicate with native speakers of the TL.

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[19] L. Selinker. Interlanguage. IRAL 10:211 (1972)

[20] i.e. the learner seeks out phonemes, grammatical relationships or semantic features, for example, which he knows to exist in his native language.(Weinreich, 1953:7)

5. Overgeneralization of TL linguistic material - some elements of IL result from the extension of TL rules and semantic features to contexts where they do not pertain.

In each instance, these processes produce "fossilization" or the retention of peculiar linguistic items, rules and subsystems in the IL, no matter the age of the learner or the amount of instruction received. The strategy of communication, for example, may dictate to the learner that he has learnt enough of the TL to communicate with native speakers. In as much as the surface structures of the TL utterances of the second language learner are largely controlled by these processes, a certain degree of ambiguity must necessarily surround the attributing of "fossilizable' linguistic phenomena" to one particular process.

Three broad positions seem to emerge: In the learner's attempts to communicate in the target language, he commits errors which may stem from

1. non-conscious transfer of elements from a previously known language;
2. his heuristics as he attempts to construct the syntax of the new language;
3. weaknesses in teacher methodology.

The influence of social factors:

But the social dimensions of the learner's verbal behaviour also merit consideration. Weinreich himself, often cited as having provided some of the most conclusive evidence in favour of interlingual interference, comments

> .... the linguist who makes theories about language influence but neglects to account for the socio-cultural setting of the language contact leaves his study suspended, as it were, in mid-air... the extent, direction and nature of interference of one language with another can be explained even more thoroughly in terms of the speech behaviour of bilingual individuals, which in turn is conditioned by social relations in the community in which they live. (Weinreich, 1953:4-5)

Weinreich's warning strikes a responsive chord in Richards (1972). Richards suggests that the limited success of some immigrant groups in learning a second language is a consequence of the society's perception of those groups, and a reflection of the degree to which their members have been assimilated into the mainstream of the dominant culture. Where conditions allow only limited upward social and economic mobility, not only is learning the standard dialect not possible, but doing so is perceived to be neither desirable nor helpful. Consequently, language varieties which are "functionally adequate but socially unaccepted" become fossilized. A cyclical process ensues whereby a non-standard dialect is generated and maintained by social and economic restrictions. According to the findings of Ma & Herasimchuk (1968), Puerto Ricans in New York City, for example, have developed "bilingual norms of correctness" which "differ from the monolingual norms" because of

(1) the frequency with which they communicate and interact with each other using both languages, and (2) their relative exclusion from contact with members of the surrounding monolingual English community.

By contrast, when social factors are balanced in the learner's favour, learning a new linguistic code seems to present few problems. Drawing a parallel between Chicanos in California schools and the Canadian Anglophones in the French kindergartens in the St. Lambert Experiment, Ervin-Tripp (1970:313-314) ascribes the success of the latter (vis-à-vis the failure of the former) to the children's self-assurance. The social prestige which Anglophones enjoy in the Montreal environment, the recognition which Francophones accord the English language, and the supportive attitude of teachers who did not have low expectations for their achievements forestalled the development of any sense of inferiority or disadvantage in the school. Moreover, in the classrooms, they were not expected to compete with native speakers of French in a milieu which both expected and blamed them for their failures.

The Learner's perception of the task

Related to the learner's perception of himself in the social hierarchy is the learner's perception of the task. It was emphasized in the preceding paragraphs that where upward social mobility is curtailed by existing social conditions, acquiring the standard dialect is not perceived as necessary. Similarly, in contexts where standard usage is viewed as not particularly advantageous, the learner may opt to use the non-standard forms which come to him more naturally. This is not to imply that his ability to manipulate the standard is limited. Rather the option selected reflects "how the child perceives and categorizes the social situations of his world and differentiates his ways of speaking accordingly."[21] Within the social setting of the classroom, the child's behaviour is influenced by the expectations which he brings to the lesson, expectations which are determined partly by his experience of language outside the classroom, and partly by his particular experience of language during similar lessons. Such matters as the teacher's reception of his speech and writing, the amount of explicit correction given, and the emphasis both on what has been said and how it has been said are the determining factors.

The Parallel in the Non-standard/Standard Dialect Context

The crucial role of social factors in the learning and use of a new linguistic code would appear to have much applicability to the learning of the standard dialect of English by speakers of a non-standard English dialect. In an article on language learning and the working-class child in Britain,

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[21] C.B. Cazden. The neglected situation in child language research and education. In Language and Poverty: Perspectives on a theme. Edited by F. Williams. Markham Pub. Co., 1970, p.84.

Bernstein (1960) states that when a social class dialect becomes as well a demographic marker, its use comes to symbolize group solidarity. Deprecation of the dialect in the classroom and in society at large may create within a student fierce loyalty towards it, and a hostility towards the standard. Labov makes a comparable observation, attributing the failure of Black American students to learn the standard dialect of English to "a conflict of value systems" (1964:94), to "resistance to the schoolroom culture"(1970b:34). Acceptance of the standard dialect represents abandonment of their cultural heritage, their life style. The instance of a Maori child is a case in point:

> One teacher reported that a Maori child had told her "Maoris say 'who's your name', so that's what I say". Maori English is often an important sign of group membership and a source of security for these children.[22]

Secondly, of the available options the learner may select the dialect form because that satisfies his perception of the linguistic demands of the task. Bernstein (1972) for example, explains the differences between the "context-bound" story of a working-class child in terms of differences in the children's perception of what they were required to do. The middle-class child assumes that the person to whom he is telling the story has knowledge of the subject.[23] In contrast

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[22] R. Benton. Research into the English language difficulties of Maori school children, 1963-64. Quoted in J.C. Richards. Social factors and Interlanguage. Language Learning 22:159-188 (1972)

[23] It is not intended to equate the language of the British working-class with non-standard dialects. The Parallel is to be found where NSE forms are acceptable in informal contexts.

Robinson (1965), another British researcher, gave two letter-writing assignments to middle-class and working-class 12 and 13-year-old boys and girls in a comprehensive school. One assignment, a letter to a friend detailing the news of the past fortnight, presumably would elicit informal language. The other, advising a Governor of the school how his monetary donation to the school might best be spent, would elicit formal language. Robinson found no significant differences in language choice between the two groups, and only lexical differences between the two types of letters. It would seem that their performance was influenced by the linguistic constraints brought from previous such classroom tasks.

Finally if, as is maintained, the standard is in a quasi-second language relationship with non-standard dialects, the other factors felt contributory to the structural deviations of the second language learner may also influence the non-standard English dialect speaker. Consequently his errors may also be the result of intersystemic interference,[24] his strategies of learning, or weaknesses in the teaching/learning context.

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[24] Weinreich (1953:1) suggests that from a theoretical standpoint, the mechanism of interference would be the same whether the contrasting forms and patterns belonged to different languages, different varieties of the same language or even different codes of the same dialect. The degree of interference would depand on the number of "mutually exclusive forms and patterns".

Conclusion

To draw together some of the points touched upon in the preceding sections, where errors occur in the writing of a native speaker of a language, such errors are largely developmental. The writing act involves (1) explication of meaning and (2) editing at the grammatical and lexical levels. The young writer is not likely to possess the abstract skills required, so that his attempts to furnish the necessary details may be at the expense of syntax. The errors of the second-language learner, however, may be

1. developmental,
2. teacher-induced,
3. interlingual,
4. related to his perception of the need for standard forms,
5. deliberate as a means of preserving self-identity.

In so far as non-standard dialect speakers learning the standard are faced with neither a first language nor a second language situation, but something of a combination of the two, their errors may fall into any of the aforementioned categories.

Research into the 'errors' of Non-standard Dialect Speakers

Note: Of the few available studies and abstracts of studies, only one -Craig (1971b)- pertains directly to the Caribbean area.

Syntactic errors in the written expression of speakers of American negro dialects and of Guyanese Creole have been directly attributed to the systems of those dialects.

Loban's 1963 study in Oakland, California investigated the relationships among speaking, reading, writing and listening in the language of 338 elementary school children. From kindergarten onwards each subject was interviewed annually as he progressed through the grades. The recorded samples of oral language were then analyzed for, among other characteristics, usage, syntax and grammar. Beginning at the third grade level, samples of the subjects' writing ability were also collected annually.

From grades 4 through 9, all save two of a total of 374 compositions from the two lowest socio-economic groups (mainly blacks) were rated marginal by their teachers. A follow-up analysis by Loban with focus on non-standard language, revealed that errors involved precisely those unconventional syntactic categories that had previously been tallied from the subjects' oral language samples viz. non-standard use of verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, modifiers and nouns. The use of verbs,-in particular agreement of subject and verb--constituted the major category of deviation. But whereas all subjects had difficulty with standard verb forms, those negro subjects whose parents had migrated from the rural South had twelve times as many errors in the use of "to be" as employed in standard expression than did negro subjects whose parents had come from an urban California background.

At a 1964 NCTE conference in Bloomington, Indiana, San-Su C. Lin reported briefly on a three-year experiment undertaken to ascertain the extent to which oral and written language drills could help black college students in South Carolina establish control of the structural patterns of standard English in speaking and writing. An earlier survey of the subjects' compositions had led to the conclusion that errors were primarily a reflection of their speech patterns as determined from tape recorded interviews. The structural patterns focused upon were those deviations from standard expression found to occur most frequently in the students' speech patterns. These were mainly in five categories viz.

1. verb category - verb form, verb tense, subject/verb agreement;
2. noun category - plural and possessive forms;
3. pronoun category - (particulars omitted);
4. modifier category - confusion of adjectives and adverbs;
5. double constructions - double negation, subject, comparison.

It was argued that because the use of dialect patterns was more firmly rooted in speech than in writing, priority should be given to oral practice later to be followed by written practice. Although the statistical work that would show the final results had not been completed at the time of reporting, the researcher's tentative conclusion was that "the integrated instructional program in which ear perception and pattern practice were incorporated in the instruction of pronunciation, spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, and reading" had resulted in general improvement in standard usage in the student's written language.

Reporting at the same conference was Golden (1964) who attempted to replace the dialectal features in the speech of negro students in a Detroit high school with standard English constructions. From taped autobiographical speeches, business interviews and written tests, pronunciation and structural differences between the students' oral language and standard expression were isolated. The most noticeable grammatical differences involved the verb forms: The past tense signals /d/ and /t/ were habitually omitted and there were frequent examples of lack of agreement between subject and verb. Vocabulary differences included words such as "onliest", "unlessen", "chunck" for "throw", "carry" for "take". During one semester, subjects in the experimental group listened to and repeated taped lessons and received individual teacher help in writing. Subjects in the control group did not have the benefit of the taped lessons. The results of the experiment were computed from two oral tests (a taped autobiographical speech and a business interview) and two written tests given before and after the taped lessons. Disinterested speech correctionists who couldn't identify the tapes tallied the number of deviations within one minute of speaking time. Using the analysis of covariance technique, the difference between the experimental group and the control group was found significant at the .05 level for the business interview and the .01 level for the speech. But the results of the written tests having revealed no significant differences in performance either between the groups or between the pre-test and post-test ratings, the researcher concluded that one semester was too short a time for results to carry over significantly in writing.

Working from the premise that the structure and topic of a language situation alter choice of language, Berger (1968) hypothesized that students given teacher-selected topics and structured assignments would produce written compositions containing less non-standard dialect usage than students whose assignments were self-selected and non-structured. On the basis of a dialect usage guide constructed from observed divergences of Black English reported in previous research and piloted in schools in the Brooklyn area, the first ten clauses of each composition were rated for non-standard usage. Although teacher-selected and structural tasks produced fewer non-standard forms than pupil-selected and non-structured tasks, the mean dialect usage did not differ significantly (4.6 vs 5.2). The largest percentages of non-standard usage were discovered to occur in the verb forms, in accord with the findings of previous researchers.

Wolfram & Whiteman (1971) sought to discover the role of dialect interference in composition because, they argued, unless there has been some specific training to limit its influence, one can expect some interference in the writing of the Black English speaker. Data were taken from 19 compositions written by tenth grade Black students in a high school in the Washington D.C. area. Although no diagnostic tests were administered to ascertain the extent to which all the students were Black English speakers, on the basis of one of the researchers teaching experience in the school, little doubt was harboured that the majority of children in the class spoke Black English. From a description of the features of Black English contained in Fasold & Wolfram (1970), certain grammatical and pronunciation features were selected for observation. These were the absence of the /s/ morpheme to indicate 3rd person singular, possession and plurality, the absence of the copula "be", multiple negation, the use of "be" in reference to a habitual or repeated activity (e.g. Sometimes he be at home and sometimes he don't), reduction of final consonant clusters. Analysis of the errors revealed that

1. almost half of the students had at least one instance of omission of the 3rd person singular /s/;

2. some students (exact figure not given) persistently wrote all the possessive forms without the /s/;
3. only four of the nineteen students used uninflected plurals, but they did so in 44% of all plural constructions;
4. eight of the students evidenced omission of the copula in 9% of all the situations in which they might have occurred;
5. none of the students used double negation or habitual "be" despite a number of places where they might have occured;
6. reduction of final consonant clusters was restricted to the -ed endings of verbs (e.g. look for looked);
7. several spelling errors seemed related to Black English pronunciation features (e.g. pin for pen).

Another aspect of dialect interference which was reported was the incorporation of items not only where they were appropriate, but in inappropriate places as well, to produce what was termed "hypercorrection". This was considered a by-product rather than direct evidence of the Black English grammatical and phonological system. For example, in the sentence "I often wonder whither I will mist the bus but I haven't misted it yet", "mist" and "misted" are deemed hypercorrections in order to compensate for the frequent reduction of /st/ to /s/ in Black English and to observe the -ed form of the past tense. Although all non-standard English linguistic features did not interfere to the same extent, (for example, in the absence of multiple negation and habitual "be"), dialect interference was determined to play a role in the writing of Black English speakers.

Huber (1973) compared the syntactic behaviour of two groups of fourth graders drawn each from predominantly black and predominantly white school populations. The subjects' freely-written responses to two short films was segmented into T-units and individual scores tallied for

1. average number of words per clause; average number of clauses per T-unit; average number of words per T-unit;
2. sentence embeddings;
3. number of syntactic and morphological rule variations from the regional Florida standard.

While the data showed no significant differences between groups on length of T-units or on embeddings, categories of syntactic rule variations did differ significantly. Morphological variations which characterise Black English viz. the uninflected verb form for the simple past tense, lack of subject/verb agreement notably involving "to be" and "to have" and omission of the plural and possessive noun markers.

Terrebonne (1975) sought to discover those features of Black English which manifest themselves in the writing of young blacks, the frequency of these features and the linguistic and non-linguistic constraints which promote their occurence. The research data were compiled from 350 compositions by 42 black students of low socio-economic status in a predominantly white university in Ohio. A wide divergence in linguistic performance was reported among the subjects. Although those subjects who had attended integrated schools had a generally lower percentage of Black English features in their writing, those divergences that could be isolated were the same for all. The features with the highest percentages of occurence included absence of the morpheme /s/ to denote possession and the 3rd person, singular verb form, substitution of the adjectival form for the adverbial, use of "a" rather than "an" before vowels, and double negation. Terrebonne states that further analysis of the data led to the conclusion that a more important factor as regards the use of dialectal structures seemed to be the degree of motivation each subject had to use standard expression and to assimilate both culturally and economically to the middle class. Unfortunately the thesis abstract fails to inform just how "degree of motivation" was defined and measured.

Whiteman (1976) abstracted data from a 1972 publication of the National Assessment of Educational Progress, a project of the Education Commission of the U.S. which continually assesses the writing skills of young Americans in the age range 9 to 35. Writing samples were also obtained from black and white working-class eigth graders in southern Maryland. On the basis of previous research findings, six non-standard features were selected for observation viz. absence of post-vocalic /r/, plural /s/, verbal /s/, possessive /s/ and the copula verb, and simplification of final consonant clusters. Whiteman postulated a non-dialect-specific tendency to omit in writing certain inflexional suffixes. Still the final conclusion of the study was that dialect influence was responsible for the higher absence rates of the features under study in the speech of the black subjects.

Craig (1974) sought to relate the high incidence of failure among Guyanese secondary school students on the English "O" Level examinations to the teaching and learning of English in the schools and to the use of English in Guyanese society. In order to establish the level of language usage among secondary students, twelve schools (arranged into 3 categories) were selected to represent the complete range of urban and rural school conditions i.e. the sample drew upon the more prestigious and least reputable institutions. Teachers in these schools were interviewed and asked to assess their pupils' speech and writing on a five-point scale. Of the teachers in the long-established government-owned secondary schools (category 3), 14.3% rated the speech of their students as "containing only a few grammatical errors", 28.6% as "containing many grammatical errors" and 28.6% as "creole or dialect speech". Teachers in the least reputable schools (category 1) gave more conservative ratings i.e. 56.6% rated their pupils' speech as "containing only a few grammatical errors", 13.1% "many grammatical errors" and 13.1% "creole or dialect speech".

Teachers in the Category 3 schools were adjudged to have presented a more adequate assessment in the light of their superior academic and professional qualifications and, in some instances, social background. Assessment of the students' difficulties in writing showed a uniformity of weighting across all categories of schools. "Grammatical inaccuracies" was cited as the main problem by 25.7% of teachers in Category 1 schools, 28.6% in Category 2 schools and 29.4% in Category 3 schools.

Craig then proceeded to analyse the errors in the first 100 words of writing in each of 25 scripts from a mixed (i.e. good and poor but excluding extremes) sample of first year undergraduates at the University of Guyana. The divergences from standard usage were classified into six sections and reported based on frequency per 1,000 words. Of these "incorrect dictionary meanings of words and phrases" constituted 18%;

"incorrect morphology of nouns, pronouns and adverbs" 7.6%;

"incorrect use or omission of prepositions" 3.2%;

"incorrect use or omission of determiners" 3.6%;

"incorrect morphology or omission of verbs and auxiliaries" 12.8%;

"meaningless or incorrect linking of clauses" 5.2%.

In other words, 50.4% of the errors identified were related to Guyanese creole.

Craig found no difficulty in explaining these divergences: Since in Guyanese Creole, a word may be repeated several times without morphological variation but each time with change in grammatical function, most students develop only a restricted vocabulary; new words are imperfectly learned and not incorporated into their active vocabulary, hence the errors in the first category. The errors in Categories 2 to 6 were attributed to the simplified morphology and syntax of Guyanese Creole i.e. inflections of tense, number and other relationships, the copula verb, articles and prepositions (in some contexts) are largly dropped. From the results, Craig concluded that in all categories of secondary schools, attainment in English as a school subject can be realistically appraised only against the background of the students' speech.

Discussion

Perhaps the most striking factor in the studies reviewed is the recurrence of certain categories of syntactic variation. Categories common to both the American and the Guyanese situations include

1. Verb Problems
    a. lack of agreement of subject and verb
    b. omission of copula
    c. omission of past tense markers
    d. omission of 3rd person singular marker
2. Noun Problems
    a. omission of plural marker
    b. omission of possessive marker
3. Confusion of pronoun forms

4. Confusion of modifiers (adjectives and adverbs)
5. Incorrect use of prepositions and conjunctions
6. Incorrect use of indefinite articles.

In every instance the investigator concluded that syntactical deviations in written discourse were dialect-related i.e. the subjects non-consciously utilised certain non-standard forms because such forms were part of their inner consciousness.

However, similar categories of errors have been reported for native speakers of English in Britain. Brannan (1966) identified in the written essays of two groups of fifth formers[25] drawn from one technical and one grammar school the following:

1. errors in the use of verbs
    a. lack of subject/verb agreement
    b. tense shifting
    c. omission of auxiliaries
2. errors in the use of pronouns
    a. lack of agreement with the related noun
    b. case substitution
3. errors in the use of modifiers
    a. confusion of adjectives and adverbs
    b. wrong comparative and superlative forms

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[25] See footnote no. 2, page 1.

4. improper use of prepositions.

An analysis of the speech and writing of a group of 12 to 14-year-olds in their second year at a comprehensive school (Rogers, 1973) revealed lack of subject/verb agreement, tense switching (e.g. He left early because he want to catch the bus), confusion of adjectives and adverbs, errors in noun morphology, double negatives and improper use of indefinite articles.

Whereas it is possible that the spontaneous speech of these British children contained many of the non-standard features of Black American speech, the geographical separation of the two sets of studies lends support to Selinker's (1972) observation that the attributing of "linguistic phenomena" to one particular process must necessarily be tentative. It is not inconceivable that some of the errors common to the British, American and Guyanese students were linked to immaturity in handling a writing task - i.e. in the early developmental stages written language is like written-down speech. But when it can be demonstrated that items specific to a non-standard dialect surface in the writing of speakers of that dialect but not in the writing of other users of the language, dialect interference may be claimed. In such instances interference may be due either to the unconscious use of a more natural mode of expression, or to a genuine inability to differentiate between standard and dialectal forms. According to the Loban (1963) study for example, verbal problems (such as lack of agreement and omission of the copula and the auxiliary) which no longer affected the High Caucasian group at the grade 6 level persisted among the Negro group until the twelfth grade. The use of "be" to denote habitual usage seems peculiar to the dialects of Black Americans; it is reported neither by Craig (1971) for his Guyanese subjects nor by Brannan (1966) and Rogers (1973) for the British students.

Yet even such seemingly clear-cut instances warrant a degree of caution. As previously pointed out, dialect usage in writing may also be linked to the socio-cultural dimensions of language. Hence non-standard dialectal forms may be a deliberate choice on the student's part either because of his perception of linguistic appropriateness to a specific context, or because he wishes to make manifest his aversion to identifying culturally with the community of standard dialect speakers.

Summary

According to Vygotsky (1962) and Britton (1970, 1975), speech and writing are alike in that they take their origins in the same thoughts, the same ideas. But they differ in their superficial structures because whereas in oral discourse the context and referent are shared by both speaker and listener, writing is relatively remote from context forcing the writer to be more explicit syntactically. Moreover, speech is essentially a spontaneous non-conscious activity while writing is a deliberate analytical task. Because their developmental level does not permit freeing "the self" from their writing, students up to the adolescent stage utilise in writing many of the expressive features of speech. Thus errors in the written discourse of a young writer whose native language is a standard dialect of English may be symptomatic of incomplete mastery of the rules of English or of immaturity in the skill of deliberate analysis of what one is doing while one is doing it. Where English is not the writer's native language, errors may be indicative of learning strategies, faulty rule-generalization, rule over-generalization, weaknesses in the teacher's presentation of concepts or non-conscious transfer of elements from the native language.

Because of the differences between standard and non-standard English dialects particularly at the level of syntax, morphology and phonology, it is claimed that non-standard English dialect users learning the standard are in a quasi-second language situation. But the shared vocabulary base and the ability of speakers of NSE dialects to comprehend the standard blurs the L_1/L_2 distinction. Hence the errors of the young writer, whose first language is a non-standard variety, may as well be developmental. Moreover since NSE dialects also tend to be social and cultural markers, what may appear to be errors may indeed be deliberate use of dialectal patterns either because of the perceived demands of a linguistic task or because of a desire to express group identity and ethnic pride. Although the overall impression from the available research is that many of the deviations from standard usage reflect dialectal forms of speech, some of the same types of syntactical errors have been reported for presumably native speakers of English. It is those nonconscious errors peculiar to speakers of NSE dialects that support the claim for dialect interference in writing.

The study about to be reported was embarked upon cognizant of the difficulties that thwart assigning the source of an error.

CHAPTER III

STUDY DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

Introduction

In the preceding chapter, the need for teacher vigilance vis-à-vis learner errors was emphasized. Errors were conceived of as an inherent source of information about the learner's progress and difficulties and the efficacy of teaching methods. Furthermore, the teacher's analyses of the learner's errors were viewed as providing the kind of in-the-field documentation required by language learning theorists. In adopting a format for this study, consideration was given to the immediate practical needs of the classroom teacher in Dominica as well as to the needs of researchers and theorists in the field. The study sought to identify features of Dominican creole speech in the written discourse of primary school children in Dominica and to present a descriptive analysis of the linguistic nature of these dialectal forms. Hence it was decided to focus on the errors of two particular groups of sixth graders drawn from two different schools in the Roseau[26] area. (A representative sample was deemed outside the scope of the study). Each student was required to complete two writing tasks designed to elicit the past tense and the present tense verb forms respectively. In the writer's absence, the writing activity was conducted by the classroom teachers under the supervision of another teacher. The scripts were later analysed for morphological, syntactical, phonological and lexical errors with the help of a Dialect Usage Guide specially constructed for that purpose.

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[26] the capital city.

The Sample

Two classes of grade 6 students were selected, one each from two different primary schools in the Roseau area. These totalled 68 girls and 13 boys ranging in age from ten to thirteen[27] (See Table 2).

Table 2

Classification of scripts as per group and sex.

	Group I	Group II
Male	-	13
Female	46	22
Total	46	35

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[27] a. In the Dominican school system, promotion is on the basis of academic achievement rather than age.
b. The preponderance of girls stems from the fact that the larger group of students (46 girls) was drawn from a single-sexed school.

It was rationalised that

1. an adequate language sample would be obtained from students at that level, grade 6 being the cut-off point for secondary school selection;
2. such students should have been sufficiently exposed to the standard dialect in school, so that meaningful integration into composition skills could be anticipated.

Since the main purpose of the study was to investigate the incidence of dialect-related errors in the writing of students at the primary level, it was considered more useful to focus on particular groups of students rather than aim for a representative sample. Still the widely differing social backgrounds of the two groups warrant attention. The Convent Preparatory School (the source of Group II) has a predominantly middle and upper-middle class intake i.e. the children of professionals, business managers and executives, and senior-ranking civil servants. By implication their speech norm could be reasonably expected to fall on a point closer to the standard end of the speech continuum (Rf. ch. I). St. Martin's School being largely composed of the children of day labourers, skilled and semi-skilled workers, and lower-ranking civil servants, the speech norm of students in Group I could be expected to approximate the creole end of the continuum. Group I would also be more representative of the total primary school population in Dominica. Consequently such dialect-related errors as were common to the two groups would presumably be indicative of those dialectal features of speech that were most pervasive in the total population.

Collection of the Data

For the actual collection of scripts, the assistance of former colleagues was solicited. The students were to be given two writing assignments each one on a separate day. Each writing assignment was to be presented as part of a normal class writing activity i.e. following the teachers' customary procedures during a writing lesson. By way of ensuring that the compositions would be representative of the students' classroom verbal behaviour on a written task, each assignment was to be completed during a normal writing period (approximately 50 minutes). The use of dictionaries was permissible, but the classroom teachers were requested to refrain from correcting and editing the students' compositions. As a guarantee of non-intervention on the part of the classroom teachers, a third teacher, (the investigator's sister, herself familiar with research methods), was co-opted as an observer and supervisor. She was present in both classrooms on both writing occasions, and was responsible for giving the stimulus for the day to the class teacher, for collecting the scripts and forwarding them to the investigator. In all 157 scripts were collected, and divided by topic and school as shown in Table 3.

The tasks:- As pointed out in the first chapter, verb usage in Creole speech is characterized by an almost total absence of morphological markers and of the copula where required in standard. The verbal system is simplified through partial reliance on contextual clues for the notion of tense. Topic no.1

> Recall a personal experience that you wish to share with a friend e.g. frightening, sad, happy, humourous. Write as vivid a description as possible so that your friend can get a clear picture of that experience.

was designed to test the students' observance of the restrictions of the past tense, while Topic no. 2

> Imagine a boy waiting to be seen by the dentist. Develop a descriptive paragraph beginning with the sentence: "There he is in the waiting-room, nervously clutching his mother's hand, and occasionally glancing towards the dentist's office."

was aimed at eliciting the present tense in both its progressive and non-progressive aspects. (In the writer's opinion, all subjects would have at some time experienced a visit to the dentist on account of the school dental programme).

Table 3

Classification of scripts as per group and topic

Comp. Topic	Group I	Group II	Total
1	46	34	80
2	42	35	77
Total	88	69	157

Recording of the Errors

As a point of departure, a Dialect Usage Guide (presented at the end of the chapter) was developed to incorporate the non-standard grammatical, phonological and lexical characteristics of Dominican speech described in Chapter I. The Guide was open-ended to accommodate any other categories of dialect-related differences which might have come to light in the course of data analysis.

Grammar:- At the level of grammar, the standard was taken to mean the observance of those internationally acceptable requirements of morphology and syntax which differentiate the English language as used by educated native speakers. Hence a grammatical error was determined by comparing the morphologically and syntactically deviant forms with the forms or sequences which could have been used to express the same idea in standard English. Errors at the phrase structure level were referred to three native English speakers[28] for their reactions in order to minimize the danger of personal bias. The choice of three raters was in recognition of the reported research of Braddock, Lloyd-Jones and Schoer (1963) that judgements pertaining to quality of expression can best be handled by polling the opinion of several persons. Only those items which all raters agreed were unique were included for analysis.

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[28] The rater panel consisted of Mrs. Irene Hargreaves, Practicum Associate, Field Services, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta; Dr. R. K. Jackson, Professor in the Department of Elementary Education and Assistant Dean (Practicum), University of Alberta; Dr. D. V. Parker, Professor of Elementary and Secondary Education, University of Alberta.

Lexis:- In deciding what constituted dialect-related deviations at the level of lexis, recourse was had to the Oxford English dictionary as a compilation of the agreed-upon meanings of words in the English language.

Phonology:- From the standpoint of phonology, Carrington's (1969) description of the spoken language of a sample of school children in Dominica provided a source of reference.

All of the foregoing were supplemented by the investigator's intuition as a native Dominican.

Analysis of the Errors

The deviations recorded were classified under four major headings - morphology, syntax, lexis and phonology. Each grouping was further analysed under various sub-headings as outlined in the Dialect Usage Guide. The results of the data are presented and discussed in the ensuing chapter.

Dialect Usage Guide

I. MORPHOLOGY

1. Verb Morphology

i. Omission of the 3rd person singular marker e.g. He run

ii. Use of the 3rd person singular marker where not required

iii. Omission of the past tense marker

iv. Omission of the past participial marker

2. Noun Morphology

i. Omission of the plural marker

ii. Omission of the possessive marker

II. SYNTAX

1. Verbal Forms

i. Lack of subject/verb agreement involving verb "to be"

ii. Omission of "to be" e.g. Jane tired; John playing

iii. Omission of modals e.g. You like nuts?

iv. "Was" or "did" + verb stem to express past tense (completive)

v. "Was" or "did" + present participle to express habitual, occasional or characteristic activity in the past. e.g. Mr. Charles did (was) teaching us last year.

vi. "Does" + verb stem to express habitual, occasional or characteristic activity in the present.

vii. Present participial form to express habitual, occasional or characteristic activity in the present e.g. He dancing well.

viii. Inconsistency of tense e.g. We go to the beach and we had fun.

2. Pronominal Forms

   i. Substitution of "all you" for "you" (Plural).
   ii. Substitution of deviant forms for standard possessives e.g. that's not your own.
   iii. Case substitution e.g. Me and Joe like to play marbles.
   iv. Non-standard reflexive form e.g. hisself; me myself.

3. Modifiers

   i. Double comparisons e.g. I can run more faster.
   ii. Substitution of adjectives for adverb e.g. Do it good.

4. Prepositions

   i. Wrong choice e.g. She went at her mother home
   ii. Omission e.g. My mother go Roseau

5. Double Negation e.g. He doesn't do nothing.

6. Substitution of "it have/has" for "there is/are" e.g. It have fish in the market.

III. LEXICON

1. Deviations from commonly accepted word meanings.
2. Unusual lexical items.

IV. PHONOLOGY

1. Substitution of vowel sounds e.g. /pil/ for /pɪl/
2. Substitution of consonant sounds e.g. /bof for /boθ/
3. Reduction of consonant clusters e.g. /bol/ for /bold/

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study attempted to determine the presence of dialectal patterns of expression in the written composition of primary students in Dominica. It is specifically concerned with identifying non-standard dialectal usage in written expression, the term "usage" implying the oral language habits which the students have supposedly acquired as a consequence of their immediate linguistic surroundings.

The data presented for discussion in this chapter were obtained from the written compositions of two groups of sixth graders on two assigned writing tasks. Errors of usage in the areas of morphology, syntax, lexis and phonology were isolated with the help of a Dialect Usage Guide (rf. Ch. III). The examples of dialectal usage were first underlined and then, as they occured, assigned to categories taken from the Guide.

As the study was not concerned with effectiveness of expression or rhetoric, only those items of usage deemed reflective of the spontaneous speech patterns of Dominican society received consideration. Thus, for example, whereas an item like "I hearing two big tins of oil rolling down the street" was tabulated because it evidences the characteristic omission of "to be", an item such as "then we took a look throughout the hotel" was not, for though it may be termed inelegant, it is, nevertheless, grammatically admissible.

In as much as the validity of the items included in the Guide had not been previously established (the items having been compiled from the writer's own knowledge of language use in Dominica, and from previous descriptive research among non-standard dialect speakers) some modification to the Guide was found necessary. The scripts bore no evidence of (1) "was" or "did" coupled with the present participle to express habitual, occasional or characteristic activity in the past and (2) the present participial form to express habitual, occasional or characteristic activity in the present. But some new syntactic sub-categories and items recognized as distinctively Dominican had to be appended. These included the use of the present progressive tense to express completed action, the use of plural noun forms with singular intent, the omission and misuse of articles, and awkward phrase construction.

Section A presents an overview of the results in order to introduce the reader to the detailed and lengthy contents of the chapter. Section B provides a quantitative analysis of the errors under the headings of morphology, syntax, lexis, and phonology. A qualitative discussion under the same headings is presented in Section C. The chapter concludes with a brief analysis of the possible sources of the errors presented in Section D.

Section A: Overview of the Results

Response to The Tasks

It is important to state from the outset that contrary to the writer's expectations, the desired response to Task 2 was not obtained from all students in the study.[29] Some correctly reproduced the given opening sentence, but switched to the past tense in the succeeding sentences. Others interpreted the task as an invitation to recall a past experience, duly modifying the given sentence by substituting "was" for "is". Partial responses - i.e. use of the present tense in only some parts of the compositions - were produced by 9 students from Group II and 1 student from Group 1. Sustained use of the present tense was achieved by only 9 students all from Group II.[30] Thus the reduced number of potential occurences of the present tense verb as against the total potential occurrences of the past tense verb deserves to be borne in mind.

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[29] Task 2 required the students to develop a descriptive paragraph beginning with the sentence "There he is in the waiting room, nervously clutching his mother's hand and occasionally glancing towards the dentist's office". The intent behind the given sentence was that "is" would establish the tense choice. Three reasons may be speculated upon for the students' failure to observe the tense restriction:

1. the students were not often assigned in the past writing tasks requiring use of the present tense;
2. the majority of students had at some time visited a dentist, so that detaching the self from an experience with which they could so closely identify was found particularly difficult;
3. one clue was insufficient for establishing in the minds of the students the verb tense which they were required to utilize.

[30] Group I comprised 46 students from the all-girls St. Martin's School. Group II comprised 35 students (13 boys and 22 girls) from the Covent Preparatory. The students were all in the 10 to 12+ age range.

Types of Errors

The instances of dialectal usage tabulated in the scripts can be accounted for by several phonological, lexical, syntactical and morphological sub-categories. Pronunciation differences in Dominican dialectal speech forms were exemplified in three types of spelling errors that arose from (1) vowel sound substitution, (2) consonant sound substitution, and (3) elimination of the final member of a consonant cluster. Some lexical items bore specifically local semantic content rather than their customary dictionary meanings.

Non-standard syntactic forms were noted in the use of verbs, nouns, articles, pronouns, modifiers and prepositions. Subsumed under these categories are several item types as detailed below:

Use of Verbs

- tense shifting from past to present involving irregular verbs[31]
- lack of subject/verb agreement in the use of "to be"
- omission of the auxiliary "do"
- "was", "did" and "had" coupled with the verb stem to denote past tense completive
- "does" coupled with the verb stem to express habitual action

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[31] The distinction between regular and irregular verbs is based on the extent to which the "past" form and the "-ed participle" form are predictable from the "base" form. (Quirk, R. et al. _A Grammar of Contemporary English_, pp. 104-5). Thus "call-called-called" would be a regular verb while "drink-drank-drunk" would be irregular.

- use of the present progressive in place of the narrative past
- use of the past progressive to express ability

Use of Nouns
- plural forms with singular intent

Use of Articles
- omission of the definite and indefinite articles
- unnecessary use of the indefinite article
- substitution of "a" for "an"

Use of Pronouns
- non-standard nominative and reflexive
- non-standard possessive forms
- lack of agreement with the antecedent noun
- case substitution

Use of Modifiers
- adjective forms for adverbs
- double comparison

Use of Prepositions
- wrong choice
- unnecessary use
- omission

Additional categories of syntactic errors included
inappropriate transitional words and phrases
double negation
substitution of "it have/has/had" for "there is/are/was/were"
awkward phrase structure

The evidence on morphology consisted in the main of the omission of five noun and verb morphemes viz.

1) the plural noun ending
2) the possessive noun ending
3) the third person singular present tense verb ending
4) the past tense verb ending
5) the past participial ending

Distribution of the Error Types

The various categories of errors were far from evenly realized among the subjects, one reason being that not all item types had potential occurrence in the scripts of every individual. While the use of prepositions and of the past tense marker, for example, were common to all students, the potential for the use of double negation was present in the scripts of only 15 students in Group I and 13 in Group II (rf. Table 14).

The distribution of students relative to particular item types ranges from 48 for errors in the use of prepositions to 2 for omission of the auxiliary "do" and the use of double negation (rf. Tables 4 to 11). Overall, faulty prepositional and verb usage and omission of noun and verb morphology constitute the most widespread sources of error being in descending order

faulty prepositional usage (48 students)
omission and misuse of the past tense ending (38 students)
omission of the possessive noun marker (31 students)

omission and misuse of the past participle ending (27 students)

inconsistency in the use of the past tense of irregular verbs (23 students)

More detailed examination of the information contained in Tables 4 to 7 brings to light the following:

1. Omission of the plural and possessive noun endings seems somewhat evenly distributed among the 46 students comprising Group I (Table 4). But the same cannot be said of the 35 students in Group II (Table 5). In that group more than three times as many students omitted the possessive ending than did the plural ending, notwithstanding the fact that potential occurrences of the plural marker numbered 311 compared to 124 for the possessive marker (rf. Table 14).

2. Some correlation seems present between omission of the past tense verb marker and of the past participial marker i.e. the student who omits the past tense morpheme is also likely to omit the past participial. Of the 27 students who failed to add the past participial morpheme to the base stem of the verb, 17 also failed to use the past tense morpheme (rf. Tables 4 and 5).

3. Errors pertaining to the past tense form of regular verbs involve a larger number of students (in both groups) than do errors pertaining to the irregular past tense form. Tables 4 to 7 reveal that 38 students failed to include the past tense marker where required, compared to 23 who used the base form of an irregular verb in lieu of the past

tense form. This observation is further substantiated by comparing (Table 14) the total number of potential occurrences of irregular past forms (1680) to the total number of potential occurrences of the regular past tense forms (978).

4. By matching the incidence of tense inconsistency in the use of the past tense of irregular verbs (i.e. alternating between the base form and the past tense) with the omission of the past tense verb marker, it is possible to surmise about the coexistence of the two phenomena. Fifteen of the 23 students whose compositions bore instances of tense inconsistency also omitted the past tense marker in at least one instance. This co-incidence would indicate some degree of positive relationship in the appearance of the two forms.

Frequency of the error types

The several error types display a frequency range comparable to their distribution among the students. Heading the frequency list are errors in the use of the past tense verb ending of which 88 examples were tabulated. That number contrasts strikingly with the 2 recorded instances of double negation for example (Table 13). But the dissimilarity in potential occurrence of the error types cannot be ignored. Whereas errors in the use of the past tense marker could have been realized in 978 instances, errors arising from the use of double negation were possible in only 33 cases (rf. Table 14). However, what seems evident and is of crucial significance to the primary concern of this study is that the error types are not realized in every instance where they could be.

Of those error types, the potential for which was present in the scripts of all students, the most frequent are

1. errors in the use of the past tense verb ending
2. faulty prepositional usage
3. errors in the use of the past participial verb ending
4. omission of the possessive noun ending.

TABLE 4

Distribution of Morphological Errors by Group and Subject

GROUP I Subject No.	Plural Ending	Possessive Ending	3rd. Pers. Singular Ending	Past Tense Ending	Past Part. Ending
1	-	-	-	-	x
2	-	-	-	x	-
3	-	-	-	x	x
4	-	-	-	x	-
5	x	x	-	x	x
6	-	x	-	x	x
7	-	-	-	x	x
8	x	-	-	x	x
9	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	-
11	x	x	-	x	-
12	-	x	x	-	x
13	-	-	-	x	-
14	-	-	-	x	-
15	x	-	-	-	x
16	-	-	-	x	x
17	x	-	-	x	x
18	-	-	-	-	-
19	-	-	-	x	-
20	x	x	-	-	x
21	x	-	-	-	x
22	-	x	-	x	-
23	-	-	-	x	-
24	-	x	-	-	x
25	x	x	-	x	x
26	-	x	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	-	-
28	-	x	-	-	x
29	x	-	-	-	-
30	x	x	x	x	x
31	x	x	-	x	x
32	-	-	-	x	x
33	-	-	-	x	x
34	-	-	-	-	-
35	-	-	-	x	-
36	-	-	-	-	-
37	x	x	-	x	-
38	x	-	-	x	-
39	-	-	-	-	-
40	-	x	-	x	-
41	-	x	-	x	-
42	-	x	-	x	x
43	-	-	-	-	-
44	-	x	-	x	x
45	x	-	-	x	x
46	x	x	-	x	-
Total	15	18	2	29	22

TABLE 5

Distribution of Morphological Errors by group and subject

GROUP II Subject Number	Plural Ending	Possessive Ending	3rd Pers. Singular Ending	Past Tense Ending	Past Part. Ending
1	-	-	x	-	-
2	-	x	-	-	x
3	-	x	-	-	-
4	-	-	-	-	-
5	-	x	-	-	x
6	-	-	-	x	x
7	-	-	-	-	-
8	-	-	-	x	-
9	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	x	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-
12	-	-	-	-	-
13	-	-	x	x	-
14	x	x	x	-	-
15	x	x	x	x	x
16	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	-	-	-
18	-	-	-	-	-
19	-	-	-	-	-
20	-	-	-	-	-
21	-	-	-	-	-
22	-	-	-	-	-
23	-	x	-	-	-
24	-	x	x	-	x
25	x	x	-	-	-
26	x	-	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	-	-
28	-	x	x	x	-
29	-	x	-	x	-
30	-	x	-	-	-
31	-	x	x	x	-
32	-	x	-	x	-
33	-	-	-	-	-
34	-	-	-	x	-
35	-	-	-	-	-
Total	4	13	8	9	5

TABLE 6

Distribution of Syntactical Errors by Group and Subject

GROUP I Subject No.	Tense Inconsistency: Irregular Verbs	Verb Tense Formation and Use	Lack of Subject/ Verb Agreement: "to be"	Omission of "to be"	Omission of "do"	Plural Noun with Singular Intent	Use of Articles	Use of Pronouns	Use of Modifiers	Use of Prepositions	Transitional Words and Phrases	Double Negation	"it" Existential	Awkward Phrase Structure
1	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
4	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	-
5	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	x
6	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
7	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
8	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
14	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
16	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x
17	-	x	-	x	-	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
18	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
20	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x
21	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
22	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
23	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
24	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
26	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
27	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
28	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	x
29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
30	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
31	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	-	x
32	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
33	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
34	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-

TABLE 6 (cont'd)

Distribution of Syntactical Errors by Group and Subject

GROUP I Subject No.	Tense Inconsistency: Irregular Verbs	Verb Tense Formation and Use	Lack of Subject/Verb Agreement: "to be"	Omission of "to be"	Omission of "do"	Plural Noun with Singular Intent	Use of Articles	Use of Pronouns	Use of Modifiers	Use of Prepositions	Transitional Words and Phrases	Double Negation	"it" Existential	Awkward Phrase Structure
35	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-
36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-
37	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-
38	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
39	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
40	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
41	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
42	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
43	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
44	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
45	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x
46	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
To-tal	18	18	6	5	2	5	11	5	3	34	4	2	2	14

TABLE 7

Distribution of Syntactical Errors by Group and Subject

GROUP I Subject No.	Tense Inconsistency: Irregular Verbs	Verb Tense Formation and Use	Lack of Subject/Verb Agreement: "to be"	Omission of "to be"	Omission of "do"	Plural Noun with Singular Intent	Use of Articles	Use of Pronouns	Use of Modifiers	Use of Prepositions	Transitional Words and Phrases	Double Negation	"it" Existential	Awkward Phrase Structure
1	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-
2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-
3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	x
6	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
7	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-
15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-
16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
18	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
23	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
24	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
25	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-
26	x	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
29	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
30	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	x
31	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
32	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-
33	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
34	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	5	4	6	2	0	4	4	6	5	14	1	0	1	5

TABLE 8

Distribution of Lexical Errors by Group and Subject

GROUP I Subject Number	Deviation from dictionary meanings of words
1	x
2	x
3	-
4	x
5	x
6	-
7	x
8	x
9	x
10	-
11	-
12	-
13	x
14	x
15	-
16	-
17	-
18	-
19	x
20	-
21	-
22	-
23	-
24	-
25	-
26	-
27	x
28	x
29	-
30	x
31	x
32	-
33	x
34	-
35	-
36	-
37	-
38	-
39	-
40	-
41	-
42	-
43	x
44	-
45	-
46	-
Total	16

TABLE 9

Distribution of Lexical Errors by Group and Subject

GROUP I Subject Number	Deviation from dictionary meanings of words
1	-
2	x
3	-
4	x
5	-
6	-
7	-
8	x
9	x
10	-
11	-
12	-
13	-
14	-
15	-
16	-
17	-
18	-
19	-
20	-
21	-
22	x
23	-
24	-
25	x
26	-
27	-
28	-
29	x
30	-
31	x
32	-
33	-
34	x
35	-
Total	9

TABLE 10

Distribution of Phonological Errors by Group and Subject

GROUP I Subject No.	Vowel Sound Substitution	Consonant Sound Substitution	Consonant Cluster Reduction
1	x	-	-
2	-	-	-
3	-	-	-
4	-	-	-
5	x	-	-
6	-	-	-
7	-	-	-
8	x	-	x
9	x	-	-
10	x	-	-
11	-	-	-
12	-	x	x
13	-	-	-
14	-	-	-
15	-	-	-
16	-	-	x
17	-	x	-
18	-	-	-
19	-	-	x
20	x	-	-
21	-	-	-
22	-	-	-
23	x	-	-
24	-	-	-
25	x	-	-
26	-	x	x
27	-	-	-
28	-	-	-
29	-	-	-
30	-	-	-
31	x	-	-
32	-	-	-
33	-	-	-
34	-	-	-
35	-	-	-
36	-	-	-
37	-	-	-
38	-	-	-
39	x	-	-
40	-	-	-
41	-	-	-
42	-	-	-
43	x	-	-
44	-	-	-
45	x	x	-
46	-	-	-
Total	12	4	5

TABLE 11

Distribution of Phonological Errors by Group and Subject

GROUP II Subject Number	Vowel Sound Substitution	Consonant Sound Substitution	Consonant Cluster Reduction
1	x	-	x
2	-	x	x
3	-	-	-
4	-	-	-
5	-	-	-
6	x	-	-
7	-	-	-
8	-	-	-
9	-	-	-
10	-	-	-
11	-	-	-
12	-	-	-
13	-	-	-
14	-	-	x
15	x	-	-
16	-	-	x
17	-	-	x
18	-	-	-
19	-	-	-
20	-	-	-
21	-	-	-
22	x	-	x
23	-	-	-
24	x	-	x
25	x	x	-
26	-	-	-
27	-	-	-
28	-	-	-
29	x	x	x
30	x	-	-
31	-	-	-
32	x	-	x
33	-	-	-
34	-	-	x
35	-	-	-
Total	9	3	10

TABLE 12

CLASSIFICATION OF ERROR TYPES IN ORDER OF DISTRIBUTION

Error Type	Distribution Group I	Distribution Group II	Total Distribution
Use of prepositions	34	14	48
Use of past tense morpheme	29	9	38
Use of possessive morpheme	18	13	31
Use of past participle morpheme	22	5	27
Lexical deviations	16	9	25
Inconsistency in Tense (Irreg.)	18	5	23
Verb forms and use	18	4	22
Vowel sound substitution	12	9	21
Use of plural morpheme	15	4	19
Awkward phrase structure	14	5	19
Use of articles	11	4	15
Reduction of consonant clusters	5	10	15
Subject/Verb agreement - "to be"	6	6	12
Use of pronouns	5	6	11
Use of 3rd person singular morph.	2	8	10
Plural noun for singular	5	4	9
Use of modifiers	3	5	8
Omission of "to be"	5	2	7
Consonant sound substitution	4	3	7
Transitional words and phrases	4	1	5
Existential "it"	2	1	3
Double Negation	2	0	2
Omission of "do"	2	0	2

TABLE 13

CLASSIFICATION OF ERROR TYPES IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY

Item Type	Group I Frequency	Group II Frequency	Total Frequency
Past tense Verb morpheme	72	16	88
Use of prepositions	67	18	85
Past participle morpheme	36	6	42
Possessive morpheme	26	14	40
Tense inconsistency	29	5	34
Use of articles	27	4	31
Plural noun morpheme	25	5	30
Vowel sound substitution	17	10	27
Incorrect word use	16	9	25
Reduction of consonant clusters	8	17	25
3rd pers. sing. present tense verb morpheme	3	20	23
Awkward phrase structure	15	7	22
Subject/Verb agreement - "to be"	8	13	21
Plural form for singular	6	10	16
Omission of "to be"	11	4	15
Use of pronouns	7	7	14
Use of modifiers	6	6	12
"go and" + verb stem	10	0	10
Transitional words and phrases	8	1	9
Consonant sound substitution	5	3	8
Redundancy in use of past tense	8	0	8
Pres.prog. for past tense (completive)	5	0	5
Existential "it"	3	1	4
Omission of auxiliary "do"	2	0	2
"was", "did" + verb stem	2	0	2
Past prog. to express ability	2	0	2
Double negation	2	0	2
"does" verb stem	1	1	2

Source: Tables 15 to 61

TABLE 14

DISTRIBUTION AND POTENTIAL FREQUENCY OF SELECTED MORPHOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL ITEM TYPES

ITEM TYPE	Potential Frequency GROUP I	Potential Frequency GROUP II	Omissions GROUP I	Omissions GROUP II	Total Omissions	Distribution GROUP I	Distribution GROUP II
MORPHOLOGY							
Plural noun morpheme	308	311	16	4	20	46	35
Possessive morpheme	162	124	26	14	40	46	35
3rd pers. sing.verb morpheme	10	189	1	13	14	2	19
Past tense morpheme	643	335	68	15	83	46	35
Past participle morpheme	141	136	35	6	41	46	35
SYNTAX							
Past tense (irregular verbs)	1032	648	29	5	34	46	35
-ly adverb	67	47	5	3	8	25	19
Double comparison	10	10	1	1	2	1	1
Double negation	16	17	2	-	2	15	12
"it" existential	20	17	3	1	4	16	13

Section B: Quantitative Analysis of the Data

The distribution of the error types among the subjects in the study is shown in Tables 4 through 11 under the headings of morphology, syntax, lexis and phonology. That information is summarized in Table 12. Table 13 lists the frequencies in descending order. In presenting and discussing the data, the categorization used in the tables has been retained.

1. MORPHOLOGY

Distribution of the morphological errors is shown in Tables 4 and 5.

1.1 Noun Morphology

The data reveal that 16 students in Group I and 4 students in Group II erred in the use of the plural noun ending while 18 Group I students and 13 Group II students failed to include the possessive morpheme where required in standard dialect. The 20 students whose scripts contained errors in the use of the plural morpheme had a total error score of 30. Forty instances of omission of the possessive morpheme were tabulated (Table 13).

1.2 Verb Morphology

At the beginning of this chapter, attention was drawn to the fact that only 19 of the 81 students in the study observed (either in whole or in part) the tense restriction imposed by Task 2. It follows, therefore, that the frequency of the third person singular present tense verb was much reduced. Use of the third person singular morpheme produced errors in the scripts of 2 students in Group I and 8 in Group II. Together the 10 students had an error score of 23. Omission of the past participle ending -ed by 22 Group I students and 5 Group II students totalled 42 instances. But it was in the use of the past tense -ed ending that the highest error frequency was realized - a total of 88 examples in the scripts of 29 Group I students and 9 Group II students. Seventeen students omitted both the past tense and the past participial endings.

2. SYNTAX

Tables 6 and 7 give the distribution of the syntactical errors among Groups I and II respectively.

2.1 Use of Verbs

Errors in this sub-category are tabled under several item types (Tables 25 - 38). When all these are grouped together, however, we find that verb use accounted for the single largest sub-category of errors - 101 recorded instances by 30 Group I students and 11 Group II students. The distribution and frequency of the individual item types are as follows:

inconsistency in the use of the past tense of irregular verbs -
34 errors by 23 students

redundancy in the use of the past tense[32] - 8 errors by 7 students

lack of subject/verb agreement in the use of "to be" - 21 errors by 12 students

omission of "to be" - 15 errors by 7 students

omission of auxiliary "do" - 2 errors by 2 students

"was" or "did" plus the verb stem - 2 errors by 2 students

"does" plus the verb stem - 2 errors by 2 students

the present progressive in place of the narrative past - 5 errors by 1 student

the past progressive to express ability - 2 errors by 2 students

"go and" plus the verb stem - 10 errors by 7 students

2.2 Use of Nouns

The information on noun morphology has already been presented in sub-section 1.1. Another type of noun error was the use of plural forms with singular meaning. Sixteen such errors were discovered in the scripts of 6 students in Group I and 10 students in Group II.

2.3 Use of Articles

Eleven Group I students and 4 Group II students erred at least once in the use of the definite and indefinite articles. A total of 31 errors was recorded. Of these, 21 involved omission of the article "the" by Group I students and 1 Group II student (Tables 41 and 42). There were 5 examples of omission of the article "a" by 3 Group I students, 3 examples of the unnecessary use of "a" by 3 students (Groups I and II), and 2 examples of "a" before a noun beginning with a vowel by 2 Group II students.

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[32] i.e. use of a past tense form where the concept of pastness has previously been expressed through another verb e.g. "She made him did"

2.4 Use of Pronouns

Fourteen instances of pronominal error were discovered in the scripts of 11 students, 5 in Group I and 6 in Group II. These errors resulted from (Tables 43 and 44) wrong choice of form to express possession (4), lack of agreement with the antecedent noun (3), use of non-standard reflexive forms (3), use of a non-standard nominative form (1), case substitution involving the nominative and objective (2), and unnecessary repetition (1).

2.5 Use of Modifiers

Eight students (3 in Group I and 5 in Group II) erred at least once in the use of modifiers. These students had an error score of 12. Five of the 6 errors by the Group I students (rf. Table 45) stemmed from use of the adjective form for the adverb. Two Group II students also had similar errors (Table 46). The remaining 4 errors arose from double comparison (2 instances), use of a pronoun as an adverb, and a unique adverb form.

2.6 Use of Prepositions

Of all the error types, faulty prepositional usage was the most widely distributed and the second most frequent. Among the two groups, 48 students (34 in Group I and 14 in Group II) either selected the wrong preposition and/or failed to include one where required and/or inserted one where not necessary. There were 85 instances of prepositional error tabulated of which 67 were committed by Group I students and 18 by Group II students. Wrong choice of preposition was the single largest error source accounting for 45 errors by 25 Group I students and 18 errors by 13 Group II students (rf. Tables 47 and 48).

2.7 Transitional Words and Phrases

Errors in this regard stemmed from inappropriate connecting words and phrases. A total frequency score of 9 was calculated with individual group scores of 8 and 1. The scripts of 4 Group I students and 1 Group II student contained examples of that type of error (rf. Tables 6 and 7).

2.8 Use of Double Negation

This error type was rare, only 2 instances having been recorded in the scripts of as many students in Group I (rf. Tables 6 and 7)

2.9 Use of "it" existential

"it have" (or variants thereof) in place of the standard "there is/are" was produced by 3 students, 2 in Group I and 1 in Group II. Together they had a frequency score of 4.

2.10 Awkward Phrase Structure

As explained in the introduction to this chapter, rhetoric or elegance of expression fell outside the area of interest of this study. However, some awkwardly-constructed phrases and sentences which were encountered seemed to be almost literal translations of French Creole. It is these constructions produced by 14 Group I students and 5 Group II students which are here the focus of attention. A total of 22 such phrases was tabulated, 15 by the Group I students and 7 by the Group II students (rf. Table 13).

3. LEXIS

The distribution of lexical errors among the groups is provided by Tables 8 and 9. Word usage showing deviation from accepted dictionary meanings was noted in the scripts of 16 Group I students and 9 Group II students. Altogether 25 such lexical errors were found, the individual group totals being 16 and 9 respectively (rf. Table 13).

4. PHONOLOGY

Those spelling errors adjudged related to pronunciation differences in Dominican Creole speech (rf. Tables 60 and 61) were of three types:

Errors arising from vowel sound substitution of which there were 27 (Group I: 17; Group II: 10)

Errors arising from consonant sound substitution of which there were 8 (Group I: 5; Group II: 3)

Errors arising from reduction of a consonant cluster of which there were 25 (Group I: 8; Group II: 17)

In addition to being the most frequent, the first type was also the most widely distributed affecting 12 Group I students and 9 Group II students (Tables 10 and 11). Consonant sound substitution was the least widespread, having been produced by 4 Group I students and 3 Group II students. Five Group I students and 10 Group II students had at least one instance of elimination of the final member of a consonant cluster. Altogether 31 (17 Group I and 14 Group II) of the 81 students in the study had at least one spelling error which seemed dialect-related.

According to the information contained in Tables 12 and 13, errors in the use of the past tense morpheme and faulty prepositional usage are the two most frequent. The same two items (in reverse order) are also the most widely distributed.

Section C: Discussion

The recorded errors, presented in detail in Tables 15 through 61, are discussed by item types under the broader headings of morphology, syntax, lexis and phonology. Such errors as displayed unnecessary use of standard elements have been reserved for discussion in Section D under the heading of "Possible Sources of the Errors".

One of the significant factors made apparent in the preceding section is the dissimilarity in frequency and distribution among the error types. Two reasons seemed likely viz. (1) possible dissimilarity in opportunity frequency and distribution, and (2) intermittent rather than consistent realization of the potential occurrences. Accordingly, a few error types were selected from among the most frequent and widespread and from among the least encountered. For these, the potential distribution and frequency in the scripts were calculated (Table 14) in order to ascertain the plausibility of the aforementioned reasons. The results of the comparison are treated in the general body of the ensuing discussion. That point will be pursued and reference made in the relevant sub-sections to the contents of the table.

1. MORPHOLOGY

1.1 Noun Morphology

The plural morpheme: - As pointed out in the first chapter, Creole English forms share with French Creole the absence of inflections. In French Creole the pluralizer is the pre-positioned determiner /se/ coupled with one of the post-positioned markers /ã /, /lã /, /la /, /a /. Plurality may also be signalled by an adjective of quantity e.g. /dis plã / (Eng. ten plants), /ota siwiz /, (Eng. many cherries), or may be embedded within the general context of a statement. The English variants closer to the creole end of the speech continuum show a similar use of unmarked noun forms where the notion of plurality may be otherwise deduced.

Omission of the plural suffix -s in, for example, "two piece of stick", "six lovely kitten", "some new friend". (Table 15), "many other thing" (Table 16) reflects Creole English usage and Patois structure. Within the system of creole, the quantifiers "two", "six", "some" and "many" would convey plurality, rendering unnecessary the plural noun marker. Likewise is plurality embedded within the general context of sentences like "the bat were making awful noises" and "defence-force is letting go teargas and bullet". After all, it is unlikely that only one bat was in the woods or that only one bullet had been fired.

It is evident from the examples in Tables 15 and 16 that omission of the plural morpheme does not take place in every

TABLE 15

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Plural Noun Morpheme

The bat were making awful noises
A horrible creature with long arm and legs
I saw two piece of stick

We took our thing and left

Denfence-force is letting go teargas and bullet

When the holiday were over

I saw Katty with six lovely kitten
He thought of all sort of things
After a few moment of thinking

When he see the damages*
We were sad to see the damages done*
I saw all the glasses of the showcase distroyed*

A very sad feelings came to me*

She cannot go to the hospital because there were no doctor
they were on strike
A friend of hers brought some medicines*

Got some foods, blankets and fishing equipments*
We made some new friend

TABLE 15 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Plural Noun Morpheme

These four subjec_t_

He wasn't feeling no pains*

A few secon_d_ later

In thirty minut_e_

In the room was full of many different equipments*

I bought them some grapefrui_t_ at the market

My mother....tell me if I not going up in country to spend August holida_y_

Note:

1. Items marked by an asterisk show unnecessary use;
2. Spacing here (as in subsequent tables) represents grouping by subject.

TABLE 16

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: The Plural Noun Morpheme

I went to the table to help to put thing in other

The fisherman got sea-weed and other thing
We collected our thing

We had soft drinks and cakes and many other thing to eat

Mostly all the glasses were broken* (referring to glass windows)

Note: Item marked by an asterisk shows unnecessary use

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potential instance. What is apparent is a juxtaposition of omission and inclusion as in "a horrible creature with long arm and legs" (Table 15), "We had soft drinks and cakes and many other thing to eat" (Table 16). The juxtaposition of forms is further emphasized by the proportion of omissions to inclusions which is 20 to 589 (Table 14).

The possessive morpheme: - Another characteristic feature of both French Creole and Creole English is the absence of a suffix to signal possession. Possession is indicated in the former by juxtaposition of the nouns in the order possessed/possessor, and in the latter in the order of possessor/possessed. The items listed in Tables 17 and 18 are examples of the latter type.

In general, the pattern of omission followed by inclusion emerges. For example, in one script "dentist" without the 's is followed a few lines later by "mother" with the 's. Only one student consistently failed to add the 's to the four nouns in her script where they were required.

The reader may perhaps be struck by the number of errors connected with the word "dentist". It is not inconceivable that these errors are related to aural perception of the word because of (1) the unvoiced morpheme /s/ and (2) its creole pronunciation in which the final /t/ is dropped. However, the more perceptible voiced morpheme /z/ on items like "daddy" and "family" (Table 18) have also been omitted, so that dropping of the 's in "dentist's" would seem to follow the more

TABLE 17

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Possessive Morpheme

When he went in the dentist room

The child hand and leg is broken
He gave the child mother some money
The dentist put an instrument in Joseph mouth
He was lieing on a bed in the dentist office

Soon the time came for David turn

The pair went into the dentise office

Some boys were pelting stones at Karam showcase

Henry's mother heard the dentist shouts

In the path to Marie-Ann house

He heard the dentist voice

Towards the dentist office
I ran by my grandmother (meaning "to my grandmother's house")

TABLE 17 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Possessive Morpheme

When he had reached the dentist room
The boy stepped into the dentist room

Next was Lennox turn

Don had to move towards the dentist room

In the children ward
The nurse came out from the dentist office
The girl went into the dentist office
He was in the dentist office

Towards the dentist office

To the dentist office

When he sat on the dentist chair

All the way to the dentist office

Occasionally glancing towards the dentist office

TABLE 18

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: The Possessive Morpheme

He then held his mother arm

Towards the dentist office

He is afraid to go in the dentist office

Towards the dentist office

He hold his mother hand

He went on the dentist chair

I went at a family home on the Morne (meaning "the home of a relative")

The dentist office opened
on the dentist office

When he sat on the dentise chair

Towards the dentist office

TABLE 18 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: The Possessive Morpheme

But could not escape from Daddy grip

Each time he watch the dentist chair

Towards the dentist office

---

regularized pattern of morphological omission in Creole English usage.

1.2 Verb Morphology

Third person singular present tense verb morpheme:- Creole English variants do not observe the standard English requirement that a present tense verb which has a singular subject be identified by the addition of -s or -es. Similarly, the verbal system of French Creole does not permit changes to the verb stem. Therefore, any carry-over of dialectal features to writing would imply the absence of these suffixes. Errors pertaining to the third person singular form of the present tense verb are classified in Tables 19 and 20. The low frequency (compared to errors pertaining to the past tense ending) is probably the result of limited opportunity frequency (rf. Table 14) occasioned by the failure of many students to correctly perform Task 2. Of the 197 verbs requiring the relevant suffixes, 14 were incorrectly written.

The past tense and past participial morphemes: - In standard usage, the past tense (completive aspect) is expressed through verb forms that require morphological change even where the addition of an auxiliary verb becomes necessary. By contrast, the French Creole verb is invariable, free morphemes positioned before and after the verb being the tense indicators. The verbal system of Creole English shows certain similarities to that of French Creole. The verb in Creole

TABLE 19

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: 3rd Person Singular Present Tense Verb Morpheme

The dentise takes the instrument....and take out the tooth

People usually speaks*

Social studies and science teaches us*

Note: Items marked by an asterisk show unnecessary use

TABLE 20

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: 3rd Person Singular Present Tense Verb Morpheme

The office door open and his mother brings him in

The dentist ask him a few questions
But when he see that long needle he closes it
The dentist tell his mother that she has to bring her son...

How it is happy when your parent go and spend holidays
(referring to "her mother".)

He says in his mind that he wish he wasn't a coward

There he is trembling nervously. He hold his mother hand

When he want play he does not always....
When he see he is coming nearer to the door
He shakes his head he hold his mother hands
I goes straight at his home to call him*
We goes all round the gardens playing*
We plays till we become very tired*
I tells him goodby*
When we finishes do our work*
We goes on the beach*
He looks at everybody goes in one by one*

TABLE 20

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: 3rd Person Singular Present Tense Verb Morpheme

Each time he watch the dentist door, he holds his mother's hand

I enjoy myself more on the last week before school open

"Will it hurt?" he ask himself

Note: Items marked by an asterisk show unnecessary use.

English remains unchanged, and tense is expressed either through expressions of time like "last month", "yesterday", "today", or through a combination of "did" or "was" (acting as markers) plus the base form of the verb. The increasing use of "had" as a past tense marker in St. Lucia and Dominica was commented upon by Carrington (1969). He argued that the use of "had" represents consciousness of the need for a past tense, even though consciousness did not always guarantee realization of the correct verb form (rf. "had stop" and "had jump" in Table 23).

Tables 21 to 24 detail the errors related to the past tense and the past participial forms of the verb. Once again, the juxtaposition of standard and non-standard forms must be emphasized. We find in the scripts items like "How I screamed and shout", "When the dentist reach in his office he started calling" (Table 21), "We played in the water and yell with joy", "Suddenly my teacher called to me and ask me..." (Table 22).

Of the 978 verbs requiring the past tense morpheme, 83 were incorrectly written; the use of the participle ending produced 41 omissions (Table 14). Proportionately considered, omission of the past participle morpheme seems more frequent than omission of the past tense morpheme. Though opportunity frequency for the past participle ending totalled less than one-third that for the past tense ending, past participle related errors were approximately one-half the number of past tense related errors.

TABLE 21

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Past Tense Morpheme

When I reach Elm's Hall, I ran...

As the dentist was about to inject his gum, the boy jump up
The boy jump off the chair and ran to his mother

We unloaded our things and we walk to the beach
The captain of the boat turn and he brought us safe...
As it reach the spot where we were standing

The dentist lift him up and put him to sit on the chair
When she smile for him, he became much more braver
He did not make a sound when the dentist extract his tooth

When he reach he explan all what that had happened
His mother came in and Joseph open his mouth at once
When he revive he was lieing on a bed

He scold his mother.....His mother answered

John open his mouth
The dentist's inject him and....removed the teeth
So I said in my mind how is that what heppen

TABLE 21 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Past Tense Morpheme

The people then check our passports, then told us....

At first I could not believed*

Most people began to cry and everybody help to put....

He pulled the lever for raising the chair and he look at the teeth

When we arrive there was an enormous crowd

He heard the doctor said good-afternoon*

About 2 o'clock the dentist arrive

When he enter the room he began to cry

It was half past six when my sister and I reach home

I ask my mum for a hot cup of tea and went to bed

The dentist ask what was his name

The dentist inject his mouth so that he could not feel

How I screamed and shout

His happy face encourage the children

TABLE 21 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Past Tense Morpheme

When the children extract their tooth, they were crying loudly
When the dentist reach in his office he started calling
The dentist ask him where he lived

I put it where they does checked the grips and boxes*
I went and play cards....I hear the pilot say
She kissed me....they all greet me
We all went to walked*
Then he stop crying

The nurse came forwards; Dick kick the nurse

Dan thank the dentist and he went home

I hesitate for a brief moment that if I should run or not

I bathe all by myself... some of my friends called me
We all bathe together
I did not want to play but they force me
When I dive I went right under water
He open it and told the doctor

TABLE 21 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Past Tense Morpheme

As they walk into the office
The nurse pull the lamp
The dentist ask Peter to sit on the chair
The dentist injected his gum, he start crying
He start crying very loud

I fainted. I stay in the bath
He open his mouth as he was told

When we finish eating we went
Jack's mother laugh

We played games......we enjoy ourselves

When the dentist inject the gums he did not do anything
He open his mouth and soon after the tooth was out.

They ask me who made these things
Later on they phone to say that they arrived safely

TABLE 21 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Past Tense Morpheme

The snake then jump at my leg and wrap around it

I jump......I push it down

When I arrived I pick up my wood

The pig chase me

Of course he wish for that because he went back smiling

The dentist slap him

I jumped and kiss her

His mother fan him until he got better

The dentist came and ask what was wrong

Note: Items marked with an asterisk show unnecessary use

TABLE 22

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: The Past Tense Morpheme

The dentist injected his gums and spray it

When we reach a little distance, Mum saw a snake

After I finish playing my uncle and aunt said...
When we reach the beach my friend and I went....
We played in the water and yell with joy
He smile back and waited for his turn

The next day....we told our teacher what we experience

It was a sad experience I had the week before school open

The happiest moment was when Colin Croft boll Hendricks

Daddy already ask him what he want

Suddenly my teacher called to me and ask me if...
I stand up bravely and then answer her
She did not realized*

When I went to bed I dream about it
I told her I dream about a picture

Note: Item marked by an asterisk shows unnecessary use

TABLE 23

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Past Participle Morpheme

After his nap his tooth had stop aching
I told my mother what I had dream about

He was regretting he had not jump up

His gum was splitted*

I was frighten than ever

Alliase Frence was burn down
I was most surprise and frighten

A little girl was knock down by a car
I got shock when he told him that

I saw a signboard mark 2 miles
I began trembeling and was frighten
I was to frighten to run

How happy he was the tooth had remove without any pain

Everyone outside the office was frighten

TABLE 23 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Past Participle Morpheme

They were astonish to see these men

The determine crowd kept pushing

Have you experience hearing strange noises in the night?
I was determing to go downstairs
After his teeth is remove
He was the first to be call
After a while of trouble the teeth was remove

We were all frighten (2)

The door was lock

When I had reach at the door of her home
We had reach a far place in the woods

His mother was surprise

I was awaken by loud shreiks of laughter

We had learn a lot of work

TABLE 23 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: The Past Participle Morpheme

The frighten boy sat nervously

Her sister was very please to see her

After a few days it had cure

I was very frighten

He was afraid of having his tooth extract

When it was time to get dress

Note: Item marked by an asterisk shows unnecessary use

TABLE 24

CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: The Past Participle Morpheme

We had fry chicken

They had stop

When the ribs was finish

He was call

I have experience my happiness (2)

Summary

The results demonstrate a pattern that alternates between omission and inclusion of the morphemes where required in standard dialect. They also reveal that for the two groups

(1) errors in verb morphology are more numerous and more widespread than errors in noun morphology;

(2) the possessive marker is more frequently omitted than the plural noun marker.

That verb morphology is seemingly a greater source of difficulty may be tied to the fact that in Dominican Creole English, the verb suffixes are more consistently dropped than are the noun suffixes. It has been suggested that the systematic omission of verb morphology in creole dialects is related to the phenomenon of consonant cluster reduction in creole pronunciation (rf. Wolfram & Whiteman, 1971). Presumably, since the verb base constitutes a separate unit which has meaning on its own, little attention is given to the inclusion of grammatical units which, in pronunciation, amount to no more than the addition of a final consonant sound.

2. SYNTAX

Errors in the area of syntax are discussed in the following sequence:

use of verbs
use of nouns
use of articles
use of pronouns
use of modifiers
use of prepositions
transitional words and phrases
double negation
existential "it"
phrase structure

2.1 Use of Verbs

2.1.1 Tense inconsistency: - Related to the absence of past tense markers is inconsistency in the use of the past tense of irregular verbs. The student may begin with the past tense and switch to the base form of the verb or vice versa as in "He told me yes, he tell me to put on my clothes" (Table 25). The appearance of the base verb form reflects the creole verbal system in which the concept of tense is sometimes expressed through contextual clues rather than through changes to the verb. The observed inconsistency again underscores the point that an error is not always committed wherever it is possible to do so. Of the 1680 irregular

TABLE 25

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Inconsistency in The Use of Tense

He has big eyes and large nose. The man wore a brown pants

He told me yes, he tell me to put on my clothes

My sister throw her ball down in the water and I went for it.
I got it then I hold it very tight in my hand

Suddenly something make turn back....When I watched again

She told the driver of the car that the child hand and leg
is broken

Then the dentist took him.....and tell him to open his mouth

He took an X-ray and send me back

They get the man's whole place distroyed
When he see the damages he began.....

He started calling....that make Bobby more afraid

I ran inside and wake up my mother

He went inside the office.....the doctor give him

TABLE 25 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Inconsistency in The Use of Tense

I bend over the window and threw the water

When it was about half past four I take a jet plane
I see my aunt and I was happy to see her
She and her husband take my grip
Lennox told the doctor....the dentist take out the tooth
When he reached home....he spit a bit of blood
Then he bring the message and went and play
When he come inside, he told his mother

The dentist made Dan sat on a long chair and bend a light....
One day her uncle send a cable saying that he was comeing

The nurse called him Peter hold his mother's hand

I was very happy....my sisters....and I eat and drink

I strike it on the head, it was dead now

My mother came out for food.... and tell me...

People brake and open by Asta Hotel

TABLE 26

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Inconsistency in The Use of Tense

When I was up the tree I eat some sandwiches

Lunch was ready so we eat our lunch

I did not want her to notice that I was scared I stand up

My mummy and Dad get up and asked me what was wrong

We continued and long after we meet a sign

TABLE 27

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Redundancy in The Use of The Past Tense

David had came to the dentist to extract a tooth

But she made him did

The next day he did not went to school

He said he would never went out when he extract his tooth

The dentist made Dan sat on a long chair

I did not drank

He saw a little boy went into the room

The dentist made Jack sat on the chair

GROUP II: No errors

verbs in the scripts, only 34 were left unchanged.

2.1.2 Use of "to be": - The English verb "to be" has no French Creole counterpart. According to the rules of Patois, the invariable unit /se/ links a subject to a predicate nominative but not to a predicate adjective. For example,

you are a fool = /u se ɛ̃ sɔːt/ but
you are thin = /u mɛg/

Note that the given examples are in the present tense. Where the past tense is intended, a different principle is applied: The unit /te/ is indispensable as a past tense indicator. This is exemplified in

/dʒɑ̃ te ɛ̃ dɔktɛ/ (Eng. John was a doctor) and
/dʒɑ̃ te malad/ (Eng. John was ill).

Similar operating principles are evident in Creole English where "is" and "was" seem to function like /se/ and /te/ respectively. Whereas the linking verb "is" is never omitted in the construction S+V+PN (e.g. John is a doctor; You is a fisherman), omission is permissible in the construction S+V+PA (e.g. I ready). However, "was" is a requisite in both sentence types.

In standard usage, "to be" also serves as an aspectual marker, in which case its function is that of an auxiliary. Corresponding Patois constructions employ two aspectual markers /ka/ and /te ka/ before the verb:

The girl is jumping = /ti fi a ka sote /

The girls are jumping / se ti fi a ka sote /

The band was playing / ban la te ka ʒwe /

The bands were playing / se ban la te ka ʒwe /

By contrast, Creole English does not require the use of "is" in a present tense sentence, although "was" is obligatory, functioning somewhat like the Patois /te ka/.

Consequently, dialectal use of "to be" in the students' compositions is likely to be manifested in three ways:

1. lack of subject/verb agreement
2. omission in sentences of the pattern S+V+PA (tense only present)
3. omission where the standard requires an auxiliary.

Lack of subject/verb agreement: - Errors of agreement in the use of "to be" are presented in Tables 28 and 29. Sentences like "How many miles was to walk", "the people is sening stones after them", "Defence forces was coming" (Table 28), "My friend and I was planning to build a 20 feet boat", "Tears was coming down his eyes" (Table 29) follow the rules of creole grammar in that "is" and "was" are not made to agree with their plural subjects. But, as elsewhere, the creole forms are only occasional. In her second composition, the student who wrote "How many miles was to walk" produced "How many teeth were to remove" - the correct verb form in a parallel construction. The student who produced the first group of errors in Table 29 had more correct choices

TABLE 28

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Subject/Verb Agreement Involving "to be"

The child hand and leg is broken

I then thought how many miles was to walk

The people is sening stones after them

After an hour defence-forces was coming

The first week of school were just like......

The nurse who were at the back of the room

And so was my cheek and nose
My eye and cheek and nose was cured

TABLE 29

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Subject/Verb Agreement Involving "to be"

My friend and I was planning to build a 20 feet boat
When the ribs was finish
We was ready to lunch the boat
We was so happy to see that

Sometime my freid are very kind to me but sometime he are not
He were trembling even more than before

Tears was coming down his eyes

His eyes was still looking
His teeth was badly affected
The happy moments was when....
His tooth was rooting

One day Celia and I was having a bath

----

than wrong ones. He wrote, for example, "...we put the engine on the boat, and after puting it on we was redy to lunch the boat. We were so happy about that." In "the nurse who were at the back of the room", "the first week of school were" (Table 28), "Sometime my freid are very kind to me but sometime he are not", "He were trembling even more than before" (Table 29), there may have been at work deliberate attention to former problem areas, resulting in hypercorrect forms.

Omission:- "to be" is omitted where standard usage requires its presence as a linking verb or an auxiliary. One student in Group I produced only 4 of the 8 potential occurrences in her Task I. In "He well known by everyone of the village" and "on the third week everyone frightened" (Table 30), use of the passive construction and of the correct participial forms depicts movement towards standard usage. But suppression of "was" may be interpreted as the creole component in the two statements where the past tense concept seems conveyed through "known" and "frightened".

2.1.3 Omission of auxiliary "do"

The verb phrase in a negative, interrogative or emphatic sentence in standard usage is usually made up of the operator "do" plus the base verb form

e.g. He does not like milk
Do you like milk?
Don't shout at me
She did go

TABLE 30

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Omission of "to be"

I said in my mind maybe somebody fighting
Then I hearing my father calling me
Then we hearing people saying....
On Sunday morning.....we hearing two big tins rolling

He well known by everyone of the village

But on the third week every one frightened

My mother tell me if I not going up in country

Whilst I there playing snakes and ladder
He told his mother his gums hurting him
She bought things for me to bring down when I going
The dentist told him since when it hurting him

TABLE 31

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Omission of "to be"

The boy frightened
The dentist saw how the little boy looking

I happy to when I heard
He trembling like a thearther

There is no Patois equivalent for English "do". /pa/ is the negative marker and /ɛs/ the interrogative so that

He does not like milk = /i pa ɛ̃mɛ̃ lɛt /

Do you like milk = /ɛs u ɛ̃mɛ̃ lɛt /

Where emphasis is desired, the phrase /mwɛ di u / (lit. I tell you) is tagged on either at the beginning or at the end of the sentence.

Creole English speech evidences many similar features

e.g. He not like milk

Not (to) shout at me

You like milk?

She (did) go I tell you.

Table 32 contains two instances of omission of "do". "I heard my father telling my little brother please not to go on the street" seems to be the reported version of "Please not to go on the street". If "I looked straight in front of me not look anywhere else" is interpreted as a product of "I looked straight in front of me" and "I did not look anywhere else", then we have an additional instance of creole usage whereby "did" has been dropped and "not" made the negative agent.

2.1.4 Tense formation and use

The point of view is advanced in Chapters I and II that, in a dynamic creole/standard bilingual or bidialectal situation, progression towards the standard tends to be through a series of minimal shifts resulting in a sort of "Interlanguage". This Interlanguage frequently operates by rules which belong neither to the pure creole nor to the standard. Tense

TABLE 32

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Omission of Auxiliary "do"

I heard my father telling my little brother please not to go on the street

I looked straight in front of me not look anywhere else

GROUP II: No Errors

formation in Dominican Creole English illustrates the point:

> "was" or "did" coupled with the verb stem expresses past tense completive aspect
> "does" coupled with the verb stem expresses habitual, occasional or characteristic activity in the present. (the present participial form is also used in a similar capacity.)

These and other unusual verbal phrases are the foci of discussion in the subsequent paragraphs.

"was" or "did" + the verb stem:- The sole instances of the creole past tense found in the scripts are "was think", and "did cure" (Table 33). Some uncertainty was entertained about "was think" appearing as it does in "It was not first time but he was still frighted and was think of the long needle". The proximity of "was think" and "was frighted" provokes the thought that perhaps the introduction of "and" triggered the resulting structural parallelism in the two phrases.

"does" + the verb stem:- Tables 34 and 35 give the instances of that type of verbal phrase. The addition of the -ed suffix in "does checked" may be taken as a past tense indicator in view of the fact that a past event is being recalled.

Substitution of the present progressive for the narrative past:- According to Quirk et al. (1972: 92-93), "progressive aspect indicates temporariness - an action in progress instead of the occurrence of an action or the existence of a state." Other concomitant meanings include

TABLE 33

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: "was" or "did" & Verb Stem

He was think of the long needle

When it did cure he said

GROUP II: No errors

TABLE 34

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: "does"   Verb Stem

I put it where they does checked the grips and boxes

TABLE 35

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: "does"   Verb Stem

I does not leave him and go and call another friend

----

limited duration e.g. the professor is typing his own
letters (these days)

incompletion e.g. I was reading a book that evening

simultaneity e.g. I was reading a book while the
orchestra was playing

emotional colouring e.g. John's always coming late

vividness of description e.g. He is chasing the ball.
He picks it up cleanly and
is now throwing it towards
the bowler's end.

To express what took place at a given time or in a given period, the simple past tense is employed (ibid, p. 86). The contents of Table 36 show the use of the present progressive to describe events of a definite past time. It is as if at the point where the student became emotionally involved in the situation as she recalled it, she could no longer concentrate on the task of maintaining careful speech. Consequently, she lapsed into a typically Dominican manner of relating a juicy story:

> On the first day of strike....I heard some people....Afterwards I heard my father telling.....then I hearing....then a few days later I am hearing...

The alternation between the more creole "I hearing" and the standard "I am hearing" depicts the idiolectal variety mentioned in the first chapter.

TABLE 36

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Present (prog.) for Past (completive)

Then I hearing my father calling me

A few days later I am hearing that Alliase France was burn down

A few weeks later I am hearing that Registry is on fire

Then we hearing people saying.....

On Sunday morning we hearing two big tins of oil rolling

GROUP II: No Errors

The past progressive in an unusual context:- As pointed out above, the progressive form of the verb denotes action in progress. Standard English usage expresses ability to do something through a combination of the modal "can" and the verb stem as in "He can speak English but he can't write it very well" (Quirk et al., 1972:97) . Although the "can + verb stem" construction is an integral part of Creole English, the concept of ability may also be expressed by means of the present participle or of "was" coupled with the present participle

e.g. You can see it? Yes, I seeing it

How come you pick those green mangoes? I wasn't seeing the ripe ones.

Thus, "when I wasn't seeing him" and "because he wasn't seeing the people"(Table 37) may also represent inroads from the dialect.

"go and" + verb stem:- Quirk et al. (1972:616-17) state

> Members of a small class of verbs functioning as first conjoin in a set of coordinated verbs may be very similar to semi-auxiliaries. Thus,
> I'll try and come tomorrow
> is equivalent to
> I'll try to come tomorrow
>
> . . . .
>
> Like 'try' in being followed by a to - infinitive in the corresponding form are stop, go, come, hurry up, and run.

The authors list, however, as an example of that construction in the past tense

He went and complained about us.

TABLE 37

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Past Tense (Progressive) to express ability

When I wasn't seeing him I stood where I was trembling

But is in the air he pelted them because he wasn't seeing the people

----

GROUP II: No Errors

That is, both verbs are changed. Creole English utilises a somewhat similar construction, the essential difference being the form of the second verb in the coordinated set. In a past tense sentence, the second verb remains unchanged similar to the items detailed in Table 38.

2.2. Use of Nouns

Tables 39 and 40 list 16 instances in which the plural forms "teeth" and "feet" are used in place of the singular forms. This is not unusual within the context of creole speech in Dominica. Two explanations are possible:

(1) the plural forms "teeth" and "feet" are heard more frequently in speech than are the singular forms so that "tooth", in particular, may never be encountered prior to the beginning of formal schooling;

(2) since "tooth" and "foot" do not follow the regular rules of pluralization in English, the absence of a plural marker may have given rise to the conclusion that the singular and plural forms are interchangeable.

2.3. Use of Articles

2.3.1 Omission

Some relationship between the omission of "the" and the unmarked noun in French Creole is apparent. In "children were laughing at him" (Table 41), for example, "children" refers not to a specific group, but to children in general i.e. all those whom the boy encountered on his way

TABLE 38

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: "go and" + Verb Stem

We went and bathe

The man who knocked me down came and see me

He went and sit on the chair

They went and see who was that

I went and play cards
Then he ...... went and play

I went and rest for a moment

My friends and I went and bathe
We went and eat our food
Some of us went by the sea-side and eat our lunch

GROUP II: No Errors

TABLE 39

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Plural Forms for Singular

Because the teeth was hurting very much

After he removed the teeth

The teeth was removed

The doctor said that my left feet was broken

After his teeth is remove
The teeth was remove

Note: In the above, reference is to one tooth.

TABLE 40

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Plural Forms for Singular

It was time to pull out the teath

While the dentist is removing the teeth

A boy went to a dentist to take off a teeth
His teeth was hurting him
The teeth (5)

His teeth is paining him

Note: In the above, reference is to one tooth

---

home. "children", therefore, has generic meaning which in Patois is expressed by the unmarked noun. The unmarked "pipes" in "It did not have any water in pipes" falls in the same category of creole noun forms.

Whereas in standard usage, the names of public institutions and facilities are used with the definite article e.g. the Savoy, the Globe (Quirk et al. 1972: 165), such names are unmarked in French Creole, hence the appearance of "Registry", "Asta Hotel", and "cemetery" without the article. In every other instance "the" is omitted precisely where an unmarked noun would be used in Patois. An English/Patois comparison illustrates the point:

on the first day of strike - /pwɛmɪe dʒu straɪk /
she was taken to cemetery - / jo mɛnɛ̃ i ɑ̃ simitiɛ /
it was not first time - / se pɑ te pwɛmɪe fwɑ /
if I not going up in country - /si mwɛ pɑ kaɪ ɑ̃ bitasɪɔ̃/

The omission of "a" cannot, however, be thus explained, since "a" has been omitted where the Patois equivalent /ɔ̃/ would have been obligatory.

2.3.2 Unnecessary use

> Tools and articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined constitute summation plurals. The noun of which they are head can be made singular and countable by means of a pair of: a pair of scisors (Quirk et al., 1972: 168)

Conversely, Creole English treats such summation plurals as singular e.g. "a pliers", "a scissors". "a pants" and "a snocles" duplicate that pattern. But the use of "a" with "cotton" violates the rules of Creole English and of French

TABLE 41

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Articles

Children were laughing at him but he did not even look at them

When I was in the middle of the woods breeze blew had
And had skull in it hand
The dentist put a cotton*

In the first day of strike
You will get hurt by denfence-force
He told me that there is a demonstration and denfence force is..
A few weeks later I am hearing that Registry is on fire
People brake and open by Asta Hotel

The next day was funeral
Everybody in her family went funeral
She was taken to cemetery

After an hour defence-forces was coming
The Leader of Opposition (2)

I heard noise like kitten cry
It was not first time

TABLE 41 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Articles

He has big eyes and large nose
The man wore a* brown pants and white shirt

When service was over

Because it did not have any water in pipes
When I dive I went right under water

My mother ...... tell me if I not going up in country to spend August holidays

They thoned for doctor

Note: Items marked by an asterisk show unnecessary use

TABLE 42

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Use of Articles

But next thing I knew

We had a tube, a diving glass, a snocles*

"a" for "an"

Looking like a 11-year old boy

A experience

Note: Item marked by an asterisk shows unnecessary use

Creole, "cotton" being a concrete mass noun and, therefore, uncountable. The principle here at work seems to be that any single entity may be designated "a".

2.3.3 Substitution of "a" for "an"

"In standard English, the indefinite article is 'a' before a consonant and 'an' before vowels and the unaspirated 'h'"(Quirk et al., 1972: 136). Patois employs only one indefinite article /ɔ̃/, so that "a" may be a literal translation that has been applied wherever /ɔ̃/ would be.

2.4 Use of Pronouns

The unique forms which make up the pronominal system of Creole English in Dominica have already been mentioned in Chapter I. These forms were shown to replace standard English "you", "mine", "yours", "his", "hers", "its", "ours", and "theirs". Other forms are also occasionally encountered, possible off-shoots of the irregularity which so frequently characterizes the English language. The forms "hisself" and "theirselves" seem an attempt at achieving consonance with "myself", "yourself", "ourselves" and "yourselves". Instances of the aforementioned are among the errors classified in Tables 43 and 44. One student used "allyou" while "hisself" was noted in three scripts.

Errors pertaining to the possessives include "it hand", "you clothes", "he turn" and "he mother". "you clothes" seems to be a performance slip since the student proceeds to use the correct form "your" six words later. To the writer's

TABLE 43

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Pronouns

And had skull in it hand

Put your clothes and go and meet your mother

We hearing two big tins of oil rolling down... and people runing to stop it

Then we hearing people saying that if allyou don't want milk..

He went inside the doctor's office....keeping his self stiff

He began shouting at the top of my voice

He didn't want to go inside he alone

TABLE 44

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

1 Item: Use of Pronouns

And whilse he slept he saw hisself in the dentist's office

The dentist called he and his mother in

The dentist injected his gums and spray it

Me and my two friends were spending the holiday with them

He thought it was he turn
He mother told him

Talking to hisself

---

knowledge "it hand", "he turn", and "he mother" are more likely to be heard in two villages on the north-eastern coast of the island where the English dialect introduced by slaves brought over from the Leeward Islands still survives.

Agreement:- "He began to shout at the top of my voice" conveys the impression that the writer is, in fact, retelling a personal experience despite the use of the third person "he". The other two errors - "We hearing two big tins of oil rolling.. and people runing to try to stop it" (Table 43), "the dentist injected his gums and spray it" (Table 44) - could, as argued by Berger (1968), have resulted from an inability to sustain information across a phrase.

Case Substitution:- Case substitution involving "me" and "I" is a common feature of Dominican speech, but only where the pronoun is part of a compound subject as in "Me and my two friends". The choice of "he" in "the dentist... called he and his mother in" may indicate some uncertainty in pronoun selection because of the compound object.

Not unusual also in Creole English is reduplication of the subject pronoun - rf. "He didn't want to go inside he alone" Table 43) - in reflection of Patois structure.

2.5 Use of Modifiers

In the use of modifiers, the main differences between creole and standard usage are the substitution of adjective forms for adverbs and the use of double comparison. Both types of deviations are exemplified in Tables 45 and 46. Non-standard modifier forms have relatively low incidence in the scripts. Only 8 of the 114 adverbs requiring the -ly suffix are incorrectly written. There are 2 instances of double comparison ('more braver' and 'more tighter') where 20 could possibly have been expected (rf. Table 14). Other Creole English forms noted are "mostly" and "plenty" (Table 45). Quirk et al. (1972: 453) cite "almost" and "nearly" as downtoners but not "mostly". The word "plenty" is a quantifier which is generally followed by an of- phrase as modification (ibid, p. 45); the corresponding adverb form in standard is "much".

As with other error types, incorrect modifier forms are not consistently produced. "He went up as brave as he could" (Table 46) is followed in the same script by "He sat bravely in the chair".

2.6 Use of Prepositions

Note: Tables 47 and 48 depart from the format used in previous tables. Since the errors were so numerous, grouping them by type rather than by subject seemed more feasible from the standpoint of the reader.

Prepositional usage constituted one of the greatest sources of error for the students in this study.

Choice:- Apparent is a certain systematicity of choice consonant with prepositional usage in creole speech. These choices include the substitution of "at" and "by" for "to" in prepositional phrases of destination, the substitution of

TABLE 45

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Modifiers

I hold it very tight in my hand

The captain of the boat turn and he brought us safe on shore

We reached home very safe

He acted brave again

He became much more braver

He start crying very loud

TABLE 46

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Use of Modifiers

It didn't hurt him plenty

He is holding his mother's hand very tight

He holds his mother's hand much more tighter

Mostly all the glasses were broken

He went up as brave as he could
Quiet the dentist took out the tooth

"in" and "inside" for "into" in prepositional phrases of destination, the substitution of "in" for "through" in prepositional phrases showing passage through a locality, the omission of "to" in prepositional phrases showing destination, the omission of "at" in prepositional phrases of time, and unnecessary use of a preposition with verbs like "come" and "reach".

1. In standard usage, someone or something goes "to" a destination (Quirk et al., 1972: 307-308). In Dominican creole speech, one goes "at" someone's place or by someone

e.g. Come at my home - / vini a kaɪ mwɛ̃ /
Go at Mary's home - / ale a kaɪ meri /
Come and meet me by David - / vini dʒwɛn mwɛ̃ kote devid/
(meaning at David's home)
Go by your aunt - / ale kote matɑ̃t u /

Some of the items in Tables 46 and 47 show "at" and "by" replacing "to" in identical contexts. For example, we find "went at her home", "I went by one of my friends" (Table 47), "I went at a family home", "We went by our cousins" (Table 48).

2. In a prepositional phrase of place following a verb of motion, /ɑ̃/ (lit. Eng. meaning "in"), is the Patois equivalent of "to". For example, we find / i ale ɑ̃ lamɛ̃ /, / i mute ɑ̃ bitasiɤ / which translated into English mean "he went to sea", "he went to the country". The "in"/"to" substitution is realized in items like "I went in the shop", "if I not going up in country (Table 47).

3. The concept "into" is expressed in Patois by two words, /ã/ and /ãdidã/, which mean "in" and "inside" respectively. Thus, for example,

I saw him jump into the water = /mwɛ̃ vwɛj sote ã glo/

The child hurried into the office = /ti mun la Kuwi ãdidã lofis la /

The replacement of "into" by "in" and "inside" is seen in, for example, "I ran in a woman's house", "he went inside the office" (Table 47), "I looked out in time to see the person running in a guava bush (Table 48).

4. Both Patois and Creole English express the idea of passing through a locality in parallel constructions:

Patois: / pa pase ã twas pase ã gwã ʃimɛ̃/
/u ni pu pase Kenfil pu wive woʒe /

Creole: Don't (pronounced 'doh') pass in short cut, pass in main (high) road.
You have to pass Canefield to go at Roger.

Thus in certain contexts "in" replaces "through" while in others the preposition is omitted. These Creole features are represented in "I didn't want to pass in the main road", "I decided to pass Guava Field" and "I passed a short cut (Table 47).

5. "on shore" is an invariable unit of Creole English, hence such items like "the captain of the boat brought us safe on shore", "after this we went on shore", "when I got on the beach" (Table 47), "I brought Celia on shore"(Table 48).

6. Creole English inserts a preposition after the verb "reach" where standard usage requires none. This is reflected in "when I reached in the river", "until it reached to the church", "when they reached in the room", "when I reached up at Bath Estate", "we reached by the riverside". The choice of prepositions also warrants attention in that "reach" and "go" seem synonymous. In a Creole Dominican setting, one talks of going "by the river" and "by the bay", "down at San Sauveur" and "up at La Plaine", hence the observed phrases like "reached up at Bath Estate" and "reached by the riverside".

The use of "to" in "reached to the church" may represent a shift towards standard usage if "reached to" is viewed as analogous to "go to".

7. "come out" functions as a single unit in Creole English as here depicted:

Where you come out? I come out by my aunty.

But students are also exposed to the standard "come from". Hence "coming out from" (Table 47) and "come out from" (Table 48) may be an amalgam of the two constructions.

Omission: - Wherever a preposition has been omitted, not only is Dominican Creole English being typified, but corresponding Patois constructions can be found:

a. /otã /, the Patois equivalent for "plenty", functions as an adjective and not as a quantifier, so that modification with an of- phrase (rf. Quirk et al. 1972:145) is not necessary e.g. /[illegible]e ni otã maʒe epi otã bwɛ/

TABLE 47

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Items: Use of Prepositions

Wrong Choice

My friend Janette was waiting for me to come with her at
her home

I went at my mother's home

I ran in a woman's house
I didn't want to pass in the road

He made the needle break into his gum

My sister throw her ball down in the water
The captain of the boat....brought us safe on shore
We saw plenty crabs coming out from holes
At the back were people with cars (meaning "in cars")
He took him out of the bench

When he went in the dentist room
When she smile for him

I went in the kitchen
John and his mother went in the office

TABLE 47 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Prepositions

His mother went with him in the dentist's office

They sent me home with a cast in my left foot

He went inside the doctor's office

The dentist... when in his cup-board and took a piece of cotton

I went by one of my friends

He was running straight to me

My sister's friend went at her home

He began to smile for his mother

When I came out from my room

I ran by my grandmother and came back next day

Mrs. Richardson dashed for the hospital

She got a lot of lashes on her head

He went inside the office

TABLE 47 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Prepositions

He went to do a message in the shop

But on the third week everyone frightened

Her mum died of lack of food and her Dad died of a car accident
She got in a car accident

I went in the shop
The dog jumped on me

I didn't want to pass in the main road so I passed in a canefield

I ran in my friend's house

When I got on the beach
After this we went on shore
When he got in the room

The nurse came out from the dentist office

Some of us went by the sea-side

TABLE 47 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Prepositions

I ran in our house

To go into my bed

My mother....tell me if I not going up in country

She brought me down to the market in the truck

Omission

I decided to pass Guava Field

We saw plenty crabs

A funeral with plenty people

What will the dentist do me when I go in there

About 2 o'clock the dentist arrive

I went Buckingham Palace

I was very busy that day so I passed a short cut

She said she was going the same place with me

TABLE 47 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Prepositions

I stay in the bath about fifteen minutes

Mu mother put them a safe place

About 6 o'clock

Unnecessary Use

I was out of breath when I reached in the river

We saw many people who were coming out from church
We followed it until it reached to the church

People brake and open by Asta Hotel

When they reached in the room

When the dentist reach in his office

At any time Old Ben would fall off from a rotten ladder

When I reached up at Bath Estate

TABLE 47 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

We reached by the riverside

When he reached into the room

Of course he wish for that

TABLE 48

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Use of Prepositions

Wrong Choice

We went by some friends in a car
He is afraid to go in the dentist office

He is going in the dentists room

My friend and I decided to go by the sea-side

When he came out from the dentists office
He is back to school to play with his friends

I goes straight at his home

I went at a family home on the Morne

We went back in the water

The dentist told him to go back in the waiting room

One day Celia and I was having a bath in the beach
I brought Celia on shore

TABLE 48 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Use of Prepositions

We heard a knock on the door

I looked out in time to see the person running in a guava bush

Normally I enjoy myself more on the last week

One afternoon we went by our cousins

In that same moment

Omission

By going different places

- literal meaning "there had plenty food and plenty drink.

b. The verb "do" is used only transitively i.e. the "do to" construction is not encountered e.g. / sa u fɛ ti mun la / - what you do the child?

c. One may "go a place" e.g. / papa mwɛ̃ ale legliz / - lit. "my father go church"

d. Standard usage does not permit omission of "at" in approximations of time (ibid, p. 312). In Patois such phrases are introduced by / vɛ / lit. "about" e.g. / jo kite vɛ si zɛ / - lit. "they left about six o'clock".

2.7 Transitional Words and Phrases

Errors arising from awkward linkage of clauses and sentences are detailed in Tables 49 and 50. The awkwardness stems from the substitution of "when" for "while" or "before", "when it was" for "on" or "during", and "later down" for "later".

1. "when": According to the examples of subordination provided by Quirk et al. (1972:744) -

rf. When I last saw you, you lived in Washington
When in difficulty, consult the manual
He wrote his greatest novel while working on a freighter -

differing overtones accompany "when" and "while", though both words introduce adverbial expressions of time. The one seems to suggest "at a specific point in time", the other "during a period of time". The when/while substitution is in keeping with creole usage. There are two Patois

TABLE 49

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Use of Transitional Words and Phrases

When I was bathing I saw a boat
It was not to long when we saw the car coming

When I was in the middle of the woods breeze blew had

Later down in the afternoon we all went to walked
When it was Saturday we all went to shop
When it was the last month for my holidays
Later down when he come inside

When it was the last month of my holidays

TABLE 50

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Use of Transitional Words and Phrases

When I was up the tree I eat some sandwiches

---

equivalents for the conjunction viz. /pɑ̃dã/ (meaning English "while") and /lɛ / (meaning "when"). Patois structure may therefore explain "When I was in the middle of the woods breeze blew had" (Table 49). Although "It was not to long when we saw the car coming (Table 49) could be likewise explained, standard English usage also employs a similar construction as in "It was not yet noon when he arrived home". Thus "when", as here used, may also have stemmed from analogical extension.

2. "When it was":- Time phrases are sometimes introduced in French Creole by the phrase /lɛ i te / which, literally translated, means "when it was" e.g. /nu dwɛt wive lɛ i te minui / (Eng. We must have arrived at midnight).
3. "later down" is an often heard unit in Creole English, but to the writer's knowledge, no corresponding phrase is to be found in French Creole.

2.8 Double Negation

Only two instances of double negation out of a possible 33 (rf. Table 14) were recorded (Table 51), despite the fact that double negation is one of the more perceptible features of Dominican creole speech. The low incidence may indicate special attention to a feature of speech which had often provoked, in the past, strong negative reactions in the classroom.

2.9 Existential "it"

Where standard usage employs existential "there" followed by a form of the verb "be", Creole English substitutes

TABLE 51

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Double Negation

Without no hesitation I ran to the cupboard

He wasn't feeling no pains

GROUP II: No Errors

TABLE 52

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Existential "it"

Because it did not have any water in pipes

It had many people there

TABLE 53

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Existential "it"

It had plenty people inside

"it have". Patois also uses a parallel structure /ini / (literally "it have). "it had" in "It had many people there (Table 52) and "It had plenty people inside" (Table 53) may have originated from application of the rules of tense. Four of the 37 existential sentences in the scripts are introduced with the creole form showing only occasional frequency.

2.10 Phrase Structure

It is the thesis of both Vygotsky and Britton that the grammatical patterns of speech are also utilised in writing (Rf. Chapter I). In a standard/non-standard dialect context, this would imply the almost certain presence of dialectal structural patterns in the written language of speakers of a non-standard dialect. Where one of the non-standard dialects does not share a common lexicon with the standard (i.e. a quasi-second language situation also exists), further linguistic complexities arise. The literature contains supportive evidence that, in second language learning, some errors at the level of phrase structure reflect the structural patterns of the learner's first language. In addition to the obvious influence of non-standard English speech, the awkward phrases which make up Tables 54 and 55 seem, in many instances, to be literal translations from Patois. The strong Patois influence can perhaps be highlighted by matching some of these phrases to the Patois constructions through which the same ideas would be expressed (Table 56).

Certain constructions are recurrent:

1. "there", a place adverb (rf. Quirk et al. 1972: 660) is used by five students somewhat like a pronoun.

   We find

   How dark and mysterious there was at dusk
   There was very dark and empty
   We cleared there up
   There is too cold to grow such fruits
   He told his mother there is a cool place

2. Prepositional phrases serve as subjects, a function not included in the list of syntactic functions of prepositional phrases given by Quirk et al. (1972) in Grammar of Contemporary English (p. 304). The examples include

   In the room was full of many different equipments
   All on the ground was packed with stones
   All inside the showroom had glass

3. Standard usage would require the use of "it is" in

   is not for the country he'll has respect
   is in the air he pelted them
   I think is time you stop trying
   Is hard to pick up the proper languages

   Omission of "it" in such contexts is a linguistic device used in Creole English to give emphasis to a statement. Its use was alluded to in Chapter I in the section entitled "Some Non-standard Features of Dominican Creole Speech".

Because the majority of students learn an English dialect as a first language at the same time that they acquire French Creole, it seems unlikely that ideas are first organized in French Creole and later reproduced using English structure. The close resemblances between the English and Patois

TABLE 54

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Awkward Phrase Structure

He said that she was just attacking fitz (meaning "fits")

How dark and mysterious there was at dusk

He explain all what that had happened

There was very dark and empty

The next day was funeral

If he has no respect for the dead is not for the country he'll has respect

He began to pelt shorts but is in the air he pelted them

I think is time you stop trying

Lennox told the doctor his back tooth he feel hurting him

When it was dinner time only drink alone he could do

Is hard to pick up the proper languages

TABLE 54 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP I)

Item: Awkward Phrase Structure

In the room was full of many different equipments

I drank water and said never me to go for wood again

There is too cold to grow such fruits

She was going the same place with me

TABLE 55

CLASSIFICATION OF SYNTACTICAL ERRORS BY ITEM TYPES (GROUP II)

Item: Awkward Phrase Structure

The dentist saw how the little boy looking

All on the ground was packed with stones
So we cleared there up in about 2 to 3 hours
Because all inside the showroom had glass

All Dad tried to slow down the car he did not succeed

I have experience my happyness more again

He told his mother there is a cool place
(meaning "the waiting room is a cool place")

TABLE 56

COMPARISON OF STUDENTS' PRODUCTIONS AND PATOIS EQUIVALENTS

Students' Productions	Patois Equivalent	Literal English Translation
He said that she was just attacking fitz	i di ki i te ka atake fits	He said that she was attacking fits
He explain all what that had happened	i ɛksplitʃe tut sa ki fɛt	He explain all what that happen
There was very dark	la te ka fɛ tɛlmã nwɛ	There was making so dark
The next day was funeral	lãtɛmã se te lãdɛmɛ̃	Funeral was next day
If he has no respect for the dead is not for the country he'll has respect	si i pa ni wɛspe pu li mɔ: se pa pu sa ki vivã i ke ni wɛspe	If he not have respect for the dead is not for who that living he will have respect
When it was dinner time only drink alone he could do	lɛ lɛ supe ãni bwɛ tu sɛl i te sa bwɛ	When supper time only drink alone he could drink
In the room was full of many different equipments	ãdida ʃam la te plɛ̃ difewã zuti	Inside the room was full of different tools
Never me to go for wood again	dʒamɛ̃ mwɛ̃ pu aʃe bwa ãkɔ:	Never me to go for wood again

TABLE 56 (cont'd)

COMPARISON OF STUDENTS' PRODUCTIONS AND PATOIS EQUIVALENTS

Students' Productions	Patois Equivalent	Literal English Translation
There is too cold	la to fwɛt	There too cold
She was going the same place with me	i te ka ale mɛm plas ɛvɛ mwɛ̃	She was going same place with me
The dentist saw how the little boy looking	dɛntis la wɛ maniɛ ti gasɔ̃ la ka gade	The dentist saw the way the little boy is looking
All Dad tried to slow down the car he did not succeed	tut sa papa fɛ pu i slo dɔŋ motoka a i pa ewisi	All what Dad do for him to slow down the car he not succeed

constructions may more likely represent the influences which, as argued by Weinreich (1966), languages have on each other when they are in constant contact. The writer is of the opinion that the sentences closely approximate what the students would have said in their ordinary English speech.

Summary

A summary of the syntactical error types is presented in Table 57. Several error types were noted in the use of verbs, nouns, pronouns, articles, modifiers, prepositions and conjunctions. In addition, some errors at the phrase structure level also seemed dialect-influenced. While non-standard linguistic features like "it" existential appear only infrequently, others are more widespread notably prepositional use and tense switching from past to present. The unacceptable grammatical forms seem to stem either from the students' efforts to utilise structures which do not form part of their speech repertoire, or from the inclusion of constructions such as they would be in ordinary speech.

TABLE 57

SUMMARY OF SYNTACTICAL ERROR TYPES

Item	Frequency
Tense Inconsistency	34
Redundancy in the use of the past tense	8
Lack of subject/Verb agreement - "to be"	21
Omission of "to be"	14
Omission of auxiliary "do"	2
"was" or "did" + verb stem	2
"does" + verb stem	2
Pres. prog. for past tense completive	5
Past prog. to express ability	2
"go and" + verb stem	11
Plural nouns for singular	16
Use of articles	31
Use of pronouns	14
Use of modifiers	12
Use of prepositions	85
Transitional words and phrases	14
Double negation	2
Existential "it"	4
Awkward phrase structure	22

3. LEXIS

In his report on the written language of secondary students in Guyana, Craig (1971b) comments that a speaker is predisposed to using a limited vocabulary and, therefore, deviating from the dictionary meanings of words, if he comes from a linguistic background which permits repetition of the same word many times in a sentence, each time with changes in grammatical function. The Dominican parallel to the Guyanese context was highlighted in the first chapter. Two points were stressed:

1. that the semantic content of a word did not always coincide with its ascribed meaning in standard usage;
2. that some lexical items were specifically local coinages.

No local coinages were discovered in the students' compositions, but several instances of imprecise word use were recorded as shown in Tables 58 and 59.

The lexical items "signboard", "transportation", "languages", "lash", "bush" and "family" demonstrate local usage. A "signboard" refers to any sign, and not only to a fancifully designed board advertising an inn or a trader's services. If someone "has transport", he either has access to a motor vehicle or he has secured a ride with someone. A "guava bush" refers to a field of guava trees, while "family" sometimes means a blood relative. Formerly, "to get a lash" meant to be given a sound whipping; the word "lash", possibly by association with its earlier meaning, has been semantically extended to "a blow". The use of "languages" is novel and outside the writer's experience. However, "languages" may be a plural form of the Patois word /lɑ̃gɑʒ / the literal meaning of which is "a manner of speaking". The word "root" (meaning to become loose) is possibly a shortened form of "uproot". The use of "letting go" (Table 58) demonstrates the effects of limited vocabulary range earlier mentioned in this section. Apart from the resulting awkwardness in phraseology, the choice of word seems to suggest an inability to articulate the incident of "teargas and bullet" through appropriate descriptive verbs.

Whereas Patois clearly distinguishes between "come" and "go", "bring" and "take", "look" and "watch", these verb pairs are frequently confused in Creole English as evidenced in "My friend Janette was waiting for me to come with her at her home"; "She gave me a glass of milk and brought me home" (Table 58); "He then watches all around himself" (Table 59).

However, items "All of a sudden the sky came dark", "Aren't you ever coming brave", "When we reached" (Table 58), "There was nothing remained to see (Table 59) may be explained by reference to Patois:

1. /vini / embraces both "come" and "become" while /wive / connotes both "reach" and "arrive";
2. While the verb /wɛste / frequently has the meaning "remain" as in /wɛste ɑ̃bɑ gloː / (Eng. remain submerged), it sometimes means "left" as in /mɑ wɛste pɪɛs / (Eng. I have none left).

TABLE 58

CLASSIFICATION OF LEXICAL ERRORS (GROUP I)

My friend was waiting for me to come with her at her home

She gave me a glass of milk and brought me home

At the back were people with cars and all other transportation

When I watched again

I saw a signboard mark 2 miles

Denfence force is letting go teargas and bullet

When I reached I changed and went out to play

When mass overed she was taken to cemetery

All of a sudden the sky came dark

She got a lot of lashes on her head

Aren't you ever coming brave?

Is hard to pick up the proper languages

TABLE 58 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF LEXICAL ERRORS (GROUP I)

She bought things for me to bring down

The next morning I was brought to the hospital

When we reached we........

TABLE 59

CLASSIFICATION OF LEXICAL ERRORS (GROUP II)

He then watches all around himself

A little girl got a lash on her left knee

There was nothing remained to see

When it was about two in the morning, my family reached

The people in the other car brought us to the hospital

I went at a family home (meaning a relative)

I looked out in time to see the person running in a guave bush

His teeth was rooting (meaning to become loose)

He had to make and operation

In one item in Table 58, "over" is made to function as a verb. The syntactic functions of the word, according to Grammar of Contemporary English (Quirk, R. et al., 1972: 306-318), include preposition, prepositional adverb and intensifier in expressions of measure. The error may be related to the creole tendency to omit the linking verb. From frequent exposure to expressions like "mass over", the word "over" may have been perceived as a verb.

Summary

Imprecise word use and extension of or deviation from the usual meanings of words account for the recorded lexical errors. Though not totally out of place, these items obscure the meaning which the writer intended to convey.

4. PHONOLOGY

Those spelling errors which may be attributable to the pronunciation patterns of Dominican creole speech are presented in Tables 60 and 61, and classified under three sub-headings viz.

1. substitution of vowel sounds
2. substitution of consonant sounds
3. reduction of consonant clusters

4.1 Substitution of Vowel Sounds

In highlighting some of the more perceptible features of Dominican speech, the following vowel substitutions were mentioned: /i/ for /ɪ/, /u/ for /ʊ/ and /ɔ/ for /ʌ/ (Rf. Chapter I). Among the errors listed in the tables, /i/ is substituted for /ɪ/ and vice versa in "a sit", "a pice", "a peel", "were sitted", "to seat", "to live" (Table 60); "dosen't fill", "seat down", "hide and sik", "chiks", "a sit" (Table 61); /ɔ/ is substituted for /ʌ/ and vice versa in "cutton", "force", "shorts", "launch", "touch", "border" (Table 60); "lunch", "uncunscious" and "other" (Table 61).

/æ/ is substituted for /ɑ/ and vice versa in "had" (Table 60) and "charting" (Table 61).

4.2 Substitution of Consonant Sounds

Substitution of consonant sounds is found primarily in /f/ for /θ/, /d/ for /ð/ and /n/ for /ŋ/ (rf. Chapter I).

The recorded errors bear evidence of these pronunciation differences: "thoned" (Table 60) and "thearther" (Table 61) reflect the /f/ - /θ/ substitution, "border" (Table 60) and "other" (Table 61) the /d/ - /ð/ substitution, "determing" (Table 60) and "racin" (Table 61) the /n/ - /ŋ/ substitution. Items "thooth" and "theeth" pose a problem. Although the /t/ - /θ/ substitution is a common feature of other West Indian dialects, it is not one ever perceived by the writer in the speech of native Dominicans. One can only surmise, therefore, that the error represents one stage in the learning-to-spell process or reflects imported influences at work in Dominican speech.

4.3 Reduction of Consonant Clusters

Also mentioned in the first chapter is the reduction of consonant clusters or the elimination of the final member of a blend of consonant sounds. The reduction of /-st/, /-nd/ and /-ld/ (all of which were cited as examples) is sequentially exemplified in "dentise", "whilse" (Table 60), "past", "atlas", "resless" (Table 61), "sening", "mine" (Table 60), "san", "and" (Table 61), "wild" (Table 60). Item "when" also follows the same phonological pattern: /t/ is eliminated from the cluster /-nt/.

The word "dentist's" has here been included because of the pronunciation which, it is felt, it would receive in Dominican creole speech. Because of the tendency to reduce the /-st/ cluster to /-s/, the addition of the possessive 's would be tantamount to prolonging the /s/ so that "dentist's"

TABLE 60

CLASSIFICATION OF PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (GROUP I)

Substitution of Vowel Sounds

The dentist told Peter to come in and have a sit

Breeze blew had

A pice of cutton (2)

He gave me a peel

After all that force (meaning "fuss")

He began to pelt shorts

Most of my family were sitted

The dentist allowed him to seat on a chair

Then we home to have our launch .....eaten our launch

We were all busy parking the food

Holding a touch

TABLE 60 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (GROUP I)

It did not border me at all

They were to live the next day

Substitution of Consonant Sounds

When removing a thooth

For removing theeth

Then they thoned for doctor

It did not border me at all

I was determing to go downstairs

Reduction of Consonant Clusters

The dentist's took John's card

The dentist's inject him

The people is sening stones

The dentise takes the instrument

The dentist.....when in his cup-board

TABLE 60 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (GROUP I)

Whiles in the room

Jack said in his mine

Whilse he was on the ground

TABLE 61

CLASSIFICATION OF PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (GROUP II)

Substitution of Vowel Sounds

He dosen't fill anything

We was ready to lunch the boat

After the boat had being lunched

They told him seat down

We were both uncunscious

Playing hide and sik

I went to the table to put thing in other

We started swimming, laughing and charting

Tears came down his chicks

The dentists told him to have a sit

TABLE 61 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (GROUP II)

Substitution of Consonant Sounds

With thoughts racin through his mind

He trembling like a theather

I went to help to put thing in other

Reduction of Consonant Clusters

The dentist's slaps him
He tells the dentist's sorry

And whilse he slept

For everything to past fast

The boy was terrified of the dentists
But atlas they put him on the big seat

The dentists gives him an injection

Then he starts to feel resless

TABLE 61 (cont'd)

CLASSIFICATION OF PHONOLOGICAL ERRORS (GROUP II)

We play in the san

The dentise

He thinks that the dentists will be rough to him
The dentists (4) (meaning "the dentist)

He had to make and and operation
Wild the boy was sitting there

would be pronounced not /dɛntɪsts / but /dɛntɪs/.

Summary

Whereas, as has been seen, influence from the grammar of a non-standard dialect may be reflected in writing in several syntactical and morphological error types, influence from the phonological system is made manifest in misspellings. Some spelling errors may reflect pronunciation differences between the standard and the creole. But, as observed by Wolfram & Whiteman (1971), the substitution may also take place in the reverse direction.

Section D: Possible Sources of The Errors

In much of the literature on second language learning, it is strongly suggested that the learner's errors may stem from a multiplicity of factors. Transfer of elements from the first language is but one of these. The errors recorded in Tables 15 to 61 would suggest interference from both French Creole and Creole English. But some few examples seem to have arisen from analogical extension and from performance slips. Each of these possible sources is discussed in turn.

Dialect Interference

When a learner's productions in one language or dialect are marked by the unconscious introduction of patterns or structures of another known linguistic system, the phenomenon of intersystemic interference is said to exist. Omission of noun and verb morphology, retention of the base verb form in a past tense context, existential "it", multiple negation and phoneme substitution are some of the kinds of errors committed by students in the study which could be described as interference from the creole dialects.

But another aspect of interference has been postulated. Wolfram & Whiteman (1971) argued that instances of "hypercorrection" by dialect-speakers also constitute dialect interference. The incorporation of items where inappropriate issues from the student's overwhelming desire to get everything correct, because he has been repeatedly corrected in the past for similar errors. Some students in the study

(1) pluralized mass nouns e.g. "the damages", "some foods" (Table 15), "the glasses" (Table 16);

(2) placed the third person singular present tense verb marker on other than third person singular present tense forms e.g. "people usually speaks" (Table 19), "We plays till we become very tired" (Table 20)

(3) added the past tense marker to the verb-infinitive or to the base verb used in conjunction with a modal e.g. "We all went to walked", "At first I could not believed" (Table 21)

(4) used a past tense form in a verbal phrase where the notion of tense is carried by an operator, auxiliary or another verb e.g. "I did not drank", "David had came to the dentist", "the dentist made Dan sat" (Table 27)

(5) made spelling errors which reflected sound switching contrary to the regular features of creole speech e.g. "uncunscious" for "unconscious", "theather" for "feather" (Table 61).

Analogical Extension

Analogical extension refers to the application of rules to contexts in which they do not apply. Acquired knowledge is utilised in a new context based on the learner's perception of some similarity between that context and one previously encountered. These are errors occasioned by the structural complexity and irregularity of the language itself.

Analogical extension may have produced such items as "a cotton" (Table 40), "Her mum died of lack of food and her Dad died of a car accident" (Table 46), "Normally I enjoy myself more on the last week" (Table 47)

Performance Slips

Errors stemming from factors such as fatigue and inattention are not uncommon. These are the types of errors which the learner himself can easily detect and correct. Such errors do not reflect the learner's state of knowledge or competence. One possible example was noted among the errors viz. "you" in place of the possessive "your". In addition to its being duplicated in no other script, the student who produced the incorrect form proceeded to use the correct "your" six words later. Secondly, the use of "you" as a possessive is not, to the writer's knowledge, a characteristic of Dominican Creole English speech, so that possible dialect influence seems unlikely.

Summary

On the basis of the data, sustained use of standard English forms seems to create difficulties for many students in this study. Seemingly dialect-related errors were observed at the levels of morphology, syntax, word use and spelling. Following the structure of French Creole and Creole English, noun and verb morphology were found frequently omitted in the scripts, though no student did so consistently. It was also noticed that omission of the past tense and the past participial morphemes were likely to co-occur.

Syntactical errors were varied, and involved the use of nouns, pronouns, articles, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions. There were, as well, some unique sentence constructions which seemed to parallel French Creole sentence patterns. The use of particular words sometimes clouded the meaning which the student intended, because these items were used in a uniquely Dominican fashion. Some spelling errors seemed to reflect the pronunciation features of Dominican creole speech.

Several of these errors were common to many students in the study, notably faulty prepositional usage, tense inconsistency, and omission of the possessive, past tense and past participle endings. But others like existential "it" found relatively low incidence despite their frequency in speech. Perhaps the latter are the linguistic features most readily criticised by classroom teachers as indicative of uneducated speech.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Summary

This study sought to investigate the incidence of dialectal patterns of speech in the written compositions of Dominican students in the primary grades. The subjects were two classes of students in the 10 to 13 age range, selected from two urban primary schools. Together they totalled 81 students, 46 in Group I and 35 in Group II.

The scripts resulted from two composition tasks designed by the investigator and administered by the classroom teachers in the presence of a supervisor. A Dialect Usage Guide was developed to aid with the selecting and describing of those items of non-standard usage which were found to occur in the compositions. The Guide included items selected from previous descriptive research and from the writer's own insight as a native Dominican. Each script having been scored with the Guide, the recorded errors were then classified and analysed under the headings of morphology, syntax, lexis and phonology.

The categories of unconventional usage tallied were as follows:

MORPHOLOGY

1.1. Noun Morphology
  - absence of plural marker
  - absence of possessive marker

1.2. Verb Morphology
  - absence of third person singular present tense verb marker
  - absence of past tense marker
  - absence of past participial marker

SYNTAX

2.1. Use of Verbs
  - inconsistency in the use of the past tense of irregular verbs
  - redundancy in the use of the past tense
  - lack of subject/verb agreement in the use of "to be"
  - omission of "to be"
  - omission of auxiliary "do"
  - "was", "did" and "had" coupled with the verb stem to denote past tense completive
  - "does" coupled with the verb stem to express habitual action
  - use of the present progressive in place of the narrative past

- use of the past progressive in place of the "can + verb stem" construction
- "go and" plus the verb stem

2.2. Use of Nouns

- plural forms for singular

2.3. Use of Articles

- omission of the definite and indefinite articles
- unnecessary use of the indefinite article
- substitution of "a" for "an"

2.4. Use of Pronouns

- non-standard nominative and reflexive forms
- non-standard possessive forms
- lack of agreement with the antecedent noun
- case substitution

2.5. Use of Modifiers

- adjective forms for adverbs
- double comparison

2.6. Use of Prepositions

- wrong choice
- unnecessary use
- omission

2.7. Transitional Words and Phrases

- substitution of "when" for "while" or "before"
- substitution of "later down" for "later"
- substitution of "when it was" for "on" and "during"

2.8 Double Negation

2.9 Substitution of "it have/had" for "there is/are/was/were"

2.10 Awkward phrase structure

LEXICON

- imprecise word use
- deviations from the dictionary meanings of words

PHONOLOGY

- substitution of vowel sounds
- substitution of consonant sounds
- reduction of consonant clusters

Frequency and Distribution of Items

The distribution of the morphological, syntactical and phonological errors are recorded in Tables 4 to 11. Their frequencies are summarized in Table 13.

1. Morphology

Errors were largely of omission, but some instances of redundant use were also in evidence. Nineteen students omitted the plural noun morpheme, 31 the possessive morpheme, 10 the third person singular present tense verb morpheme, 38 the past tense morpheme and 27 the past participle morpheme. Omission of the past tense morpheme surpassed omission of the past participle morpheme. The relatively low frequency and distribution of the third person singular present tense verb morpheme is accounted for by the fact that only 19 students observed the tense restriction of Task 2, and of these only 9 did so throughout. Of the noun morphemes, the possessive was more frequently omitted than the plural. Overall, verb suffixes were more frequently dropped than were noun suffixes.

2. Syntax

Syntactic deviations were numerous and are detailed in Table 57. The two most widespread were faulty prepositional usage and inconsistency in the use of the past tense of irregular verbs. These items also showed the highest frequency with scores of 85 and 34 respectively.

3. Lexicon

A total of 25 deviations was tabulated among 25 students, 16 in Group I and 9 in Group II. Some words like "signboard" and "transportation" had specifically local overtones, but the contextual use of items like "bring", "watch" and "come" showed imprecision rather than distortion of meaning. The errors would appear to lend support to the contention of Craig (1971) that familiarity with only a limited set of words results in repetition and awkwardness.

4. Phonology

Pronunciation differences manifested themselves in misspellings that were grouped, for analytical purposes, into errors arising from

(1) substitution of vowel sounds

(2) substitution of consonant sounds

(3) reduction of consonant clusters.
The frequencies scored were 27, 8 and 25 respectively. Spelling errors considered dialect-influenced pertained to 31 students, 17 in Group I and 14 in Group II. The distribution by item types was sequentially 18, 7 and 16.

Summary

The dominance of morphology and syntax as problem sources is brought into sharp focus when all categories of deviation are fitted into a composite whole. Omission of the past tense morpheme and faulty prepositional usage are the items with the highest frequencies - 88 and 85 respectively. These items also involve the largest number of students, sequentially 38 and 48. Finally at the level of word class, errors in verb usage are in the majority involving 57 students (Tables 4 - 7).

Conclusions

The information derived from the data suggests the intrusion of dialectal elements into the students' written compositions. This accords with the findings of Craig's study of language use among Guyanese secondary students (Craig, 1971b), and also of American-based investigations into the written language behaviour of users of American negro dialects (Rf. Ch. II). Moreover, some error types reported both by Craig and by the American researchers were also observed for the students in the study, notably the absence of noun and verb morphology, omission of the copula and auxiliary, and phoneme substitution.

The results illuminated certain aspects of dialect influence in writing. It was discovered that not all elements intrude to the same degree. For example 7 students produced predication without the obligatory copula or auxiliary as compared to 48 whose use of prepositions did not meet the requirements of standard usage. Secondly, every potential occurrence of a dialectal feature is not realised. Rather what is apparent is a fluctuation between the standard and the non-standard forms as in "then the dentist *took* him and *tell* him to open his mouth". Two factors here warrant attention: first, the deliberate analytical nature of the writing act described in the second chapter and second, teacher stigmatization of the creole elements of speech as denoting a type of English not suited to the formal context of the classroom. These may combine to decrease the frequency of certain features.

The appearance of elements of standard usage in contexts to which they do not belong may be viewed as another dimension of dialect influence. One student wrote "He heard the doctor *said* good afternoon". Misspellings included "thone" for "phone" and "other" for "order" quite in opposition to what would be expected since the sound substitution in casual speech goes the other way i.e. /f/ for /θ/ and /d/ for /ð/. This Wolfram Whiteman (1971) termed hypercorrection resulting from linguistic insecurity in handling a writing code with which one is not familiar. Whereas creole speech forms may receive tacit acceptance in the wider community, by grade six the students' experience of language use in the classroom has provoked some awareness of "correct English", of those features of speech to be avoided in written compositions.

Hypercorrection was noticed in the use of the plural noun morpheme and of the past tense form of verbs. Some words were misspelt because of sound substitution quite contrary to what would obtain in creole speech as, for example, in "thoned" for "phoned". This phenomenon may represent awareness of differences between standard and creole, and attempts to progress towards standard usage. As contended by Labov (1964), language choice being a dictate of social and linguistic norms, the more formal the context the more modification in the direction of the standard and, for speakers of a non-standard dialect, the higher the probability of hypercorrection.

Implications

The findings of the study have implications for educational planning and practice in Dominica, despite the limitation of sample outlined in the first chapter. On the basis of the writer's teaching experience in Dominican institutions, and the findings of other studies of errors among non-standard dialect speakers, there is little reason to doubt that similar results would not be obtained with students from other primary schools on the island.

1. The observed tenacity of the students' orientation to patterns of French Creole and of Creole English seems to imply the need for incorporating into the language programme at the Dominica Teachers' College units on
   a. the differences between standard usage and Dominican creole speech
   b. language learning in a bilingual/bidialectal context
   c. teaching strategies for developing writing skills among dialect speakers.

By focusing attention on these aspects of language learning and teaching, and by relating current educational thinking to the Dominican context, teachers could perhaps be led to a more realistic appraisal of the linguistic difficulties of their students.

2. Proponents of error analysis stress the informative aspect of errors, since errors signal not only areas but causes of difficulty. Hitherto, it has been the practice among Dominican teachers to pay only scant attention to dialect interference. Even in cases where an error is recognized as reflective of creole usage, the tendency is towards more detailed rule-explanation followed by intensive rule-application. Usage errors are treated as if they were all symptomatic of incomplete rule mastery. But the uniformity of certain student responses like omission of the past tense morpheme or use of "in" in lieu of "into" would point towards something

other than incomplete learning, particularly as these features are structural components of Creole English. Although dialect influence may only be one aspect of the students' writing problems, might not some knowledge and understanding of the likely areas of difficulty for Dominican students contribute towards more successful teaching of writing in Dominican schools?

3. Many students displayed a particular need for greater control of the morphology and syntax of English. The amalgam of standard and creole forms indicates that the students recognize the applicability of a particular structural pattern in a given context, but recognition either did not always produce actualization of the pattern, or produced actualization where unnecessary. Might not students be led by the teacher to a conscious awareness of the systematic differences between Creole English and standard usage? That they already possess a tacit awareness is obvious. Commenting on the difficulty posed by English as a school subject, one wrote

> you will find it difficult in other ways to use the proper word, because in some parts people usually speaks broken languages, and is hard to pick up the proper languages which is used for speaking.

Articulating those differences may sharpen the students' sensitivity to standard usage and lead them to identify the unconventional elements in their own writing and in that of their classroom peers. It can be argued that morphological and syntactical elements are on occasion unnecessary, adding no new information to an expressed idea e.g. the plural suffix -s in "six chairs". But as long as standard continues to be the prestige dialect of English and society rewards mastery of standard forms, students will have no option but to expand their linguistic abilities.

4. Some dialectal patterns which are regular features of speech have low incidence in the students' written language. One suggested reason was negative teacher reaction to the use of those patterns in the classroom. Assuming the effect of the aforementioned, might not concentration or more widespread problem areas like prepositional usage and verb suffixes reduce the incidence of errors in such areas?

5. That some regular features of speech find low incidence in writing has also been borne out by the comparison of opportunity frequency and actual realization of some error types. This may indicate some implicit consciousness on the part of the students of differences between standard usage and creole forms. Should this consciousness become explicit with the help of the classroom teacher, other more widespread errors may possibly be reduced.

6. A problem-solving approach to the presence of dialectal elements in written compositions may entail some re-organization in programme planning at the classroom level. The data revealed that while several students share common structural problems, others have the ability to maintain standard usage throughout a writing task. Consequently instructional priority for certain concepts may need adjustment to satisfy individual requirements.

7. Adopting a different approach to dialect-related problems in the classroom may require pedagogical materials that are qualitatively different from those currently available in the schools.

Recommendations for Further Research

The findings have provoked several questions which could form the basis of further studies.

1. The focus in this study was written language. A comparison of the written with the spoken would inform on which features of speech are retained in writing.
2. Participants in the study were drawn from two urban schools, one of which has a predominantly middle-class intake. There is need for similar studies with different students, focusing on the rural population.
3. It was assumed that by grade six, the student's experience of language use in the classroom has sensitized them to the teacher's expectations as regards code selection for a writing assignment. This assumption requires further verification i.e. to what extent are audience and topic significant variables in dialect interference?
4. Certain error types were found common to the students in the study. But
   a. Do students at all levels of the school population commit the same types of errors?
   b. Is there any variation in frequency as students progress through the grades?

c. How do the errors of Dominican students compare with the errors made by native speakers of standard dialect?

5. Studies in first language acquisition affirm the importance of the child's linguistic environment. Consequently there is much need for an accurate description of language use by different social groups in varying social contexts. Since the classroom forms part of the child's environment, it seems relevant that the language proficiency of the teachers themselves be assessed in order to determine the model of language to which students are exposed in the classroom.
6. The argument has been advanced that non-standard dialects do not foster the development of abstract thinking and that, therefore, speakers of non-standard dialects are at a cognitive disadvantage in the classroom (rf. Bereiter, C. & Engelmann, S., Teaching Disadvantaged Children in the Pre-School). Others, (rf. Labov, W. The Logic of Non-standard English) maintain that speakers of non-standard dialects can effectively use their language to think. The relevance of that argument to Dominican students needs to be tested.
7. Many elements of language are imbued with non-cognitive values. It has been suggested that where a non-standard dialect is also a group marker, dialect usage in writing may be deliberate as an expression of group identity. The attitude of Dominican students towards language use requires documentation.

8. If only from a purely pragmatic and economic standpoint, the search for common features in West Indian English dialects should be undertaken, then rather than a fragmented insular approach to an apparently regional problem, there would follow a consolidated effort to produce new curriculum materials.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

ERRORS AS PER INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS

GROUP I

Subject no. 1

The dentist told Peter to come in and have a sit.
After his nap his tooth had stop aching
He told me yes, he tell me to put on my clothes
My friend Janette was waiting for me to come with her
at her home.
I went at my mother's home
I told my mother what I had dream about

Subject no. 2

I didn't want to pass in the road so I decided to
pass Guava Field.
I was out of breath when I reached in the river
When I reach Elm's Hall, I ran in a woman's house
She gave me a glass of milk and brought me home

Subject no. 3

He said that she was just attacking fitz (meaning "fits")
As the dentist was about to inject his gum the boy jump up
The boy jump off the chair and ran to his mother
At the hospital his gum was splitted
He was regretting he had not jump up

Subject no. 4

We saw many people who were coming out from church
We unloaded our things from the car, and we walk to the beach.
Then my friend and I.... went and bathe.
When I was bathing I saw a boat coming towards the shore
My sister throw her ball down in the water and I went for it.
I got it then I hold it very tight in my hand
The captain of the boat turn and he brought us safe on shore.
While we were eating, we saw plenty crabs coming out from holes.
It was not to long when we saw the car coming
As it reach the spot where we were standing
On the way we saw a funeral with plenty people
At the back were people with-cars and all other transportation
We followed it until it reached to the church
We reached home very safe.
He took him out of the beach.

Children were laughing at him but he did not even look at them because the teeth was hurting (reference is to one tooth)

Subject no. 5

While in the woods I looked straight in front of me
not look anywhere else
How dark and mysterious there was at dusk.
I was frighten then ever
When I was in the middle of the woods, breeze blew had
The bat were making awful noises
Suddenly something make turn back

Subject no. 5 (cont'd)

A horrible creature with long arm and legs
And had skull in it hand
When I watched again
I was most surprises and frighten
I saw two piece of stick
When he went in the dentist room
He acted brave again
The dentist lift him up and put him to sit on a chair
When she smile for him, he became much more braver
He did not make a sound when the dentist extract his tooth
The dentist put a cotton

Subject no. 6

A little girl was knock down by a car
She told the driver of the car that the child hand and leg is broken
I got shock when he told him that
When he reach
He explan all what that had happened
He gave the child mother some money
Then the dentist took him....and tell him to open his mouth.
His mother came in and Joseph open his mouth
The dentist put an instrument in Joseph mouth
When he revive he was lieing on a bed in the dentist office

Subject no. 7

He scold his mother.....his mother answered

I went in the kitchen

I then thought how many miles was to walk

I saw a signboard mark 2 miles

There was very dark and empty

I began trembeling and was frighten

I was to frighten to run

Subject no. 8

The dentist's took John's card

John and his mother went in the office

A pice of cutton (2)

Every one outside the office was frighten

John open his mouth and the dentist's inject him

And after he removed the teeth (reference is to one tooth)

When the teeth had stop bleeding (reference is to one tooth)

On the first day of strike

I said in my mind maybe somebody fighting

I heard my father telling my lettle brother please not to go on the street.

You will get hurt by denfenceforce

So I said in my mind how is that what happen

Then I hearing my father calling me and saying put you clothes and go and meet your mother

Subject no. 8 (cont'd)

He told me.... denfenceforce is letting go teargas and bullet and the people is-sening stones after them.

A few days later I am hearing that Alliase France was burn down

A few weeks later I am hearing that Registry is on fire.

Then we hearing people saying that if allyou don't want milk, sugar, ...

On Sunday morning at 10 o'clock we hearing two big tins of oil rolling down the and people runing to try to stop it.

People brake and open by Asta Hotel

Subject no. 9

When I reached I changed and went out to play

He gave me a peel

When they reached in the room

Subject no. 10

So Dick went home very happy again after all that force

(meaning "fuss")

Subject no. 11

David had came to the dentist to extract a tooth

What will the dentist do me

Soon the time came for David turn

My mother put them a safe place

The people then check our passports then told us

When the holiday were over

Subject no. 12

A thooth

The pair went into the dentise office

The dentise takes the instrument for removing theeth and take out the tooth

The tooth had remove without any pain

Subject no. 13

His mother went with him in the dentist's office

The teeth was removed (reference is to one tooth)

At first I could not believed

the next day was funeral

Everybody in her family went to funeral

When mass overed she was taken to cemetery

Most people began to cry and everybody help to put.......

Subject no. 14

The chauffeur brought me to the theatre

The doctor said that my left feet was broken (reference is to one foot)

He took an X-ray and send me back

He pulled the lever.... and he look at the tooth

About 6 o'clock my family and the man who knocked me came and see me
They sent me home with a cast in my left foot

Subject no. 15

They were astonish to see these men.
We took our thing and left.

Subject no. 16

He heard the doctor said good afternoon
He went inside the doctor's office with fright and keeping hisself stiff
The dentist.....when in his cupboard
I went by one of my friends
When we arrive there was an enormous crowd
The determine drowd kept pushing
After an hour defence-forces was coming
The leader of Opposition
The leader of Opposition told him if he had no respect for the dead is not for the country he'll has respect

Subject no. 17

Have you experience hearing strange noises
I saw Katty with six lovely kitten
I heard noise like kitten cry
I was determing to go downstairs
It was not first time

Subject no. 17 (cont'd)

He was think of the long needle
He thought of all sort of things
After his teeth is remove (reference is to one tooth)
After a few moment of thinking
About 2 o'clock the dentist arrive
He well known by everyone of the village
He was the first to be call
When he enter the room he began to cry
He began shouting at the top of my voice
After a while of trouble the teeth was remove
(reference is to one tooth)

Subject no. 18

He has big eyes and large nose
The man wore a brown pants and white shirt
He was running straight to me
When I wasn't seeing him I stood where I was trembling
She made him did

Subject no. 19

All of a sudden the sky came dark
My sister's friend went at her home
It was half past six when my sister and I reach home
I ask my mun... and went to bed
Whiles in the room the dentist ask what was his name

Subject no. 19 (cont'd)

The dentist inject his mouth so that he could not feel

Jack said in his mine

He began to smile for his mother

Subject no. 20

At Karam showcase

We were all frighten (2)

They get the man's whole place distroyed

When he see the damages he began to pelt shorts but is in the air he pelted them because he wasn't seeing the people

We were sad to see the damages done

I went and look out.

I saw all the glasses of the showcase distroyed

Subject no. 21

The door was lock

He went and sit on the chair

A very sad feelings came to me

Subject no. 22

Towards the dentist office

Henry's mother heard the dentist shouts

The next day he did not went to school

How I screamed and shout

Subject no. 23

Most of my family were sitted

His happy face encourage the children

Subject no. 24

In the path to Marie-Ann house

When I had reach at the door of her home

We had reach a far place in the woods

Subject no. 25

She cannot go to the hospital because there were no doctor
they were on strike

When service was over

A friend of hers brought some medicines

When I came out from my room

He heard the dentist voice

When the dentist reach in his office

When the children extract their tooth they were crying loudly.

That make Bobby more afraid

He didn't want to go inside he alone

The dentist ask him where he lived

The dentist allowed him to seat on a chair

His mother was surprise

Subject no. 26

I ran inside and wake up my mother

They went and see who was that

Then they thoned for doctor

I ran by my grandmother (meaning "to my grandmother's house)

Towards the dentist office

Whilse he was on the ground

Subject no. 27

Mrs. Richardson dashed for the hospital

She got a lot of lashes on her had

He went inside the office

The doctor give him a piece of silver

Subject no. 28

I was awaken by loud shrieks of laughter

Without no hesitation

I bend over the window and threw the water

Old Ben would fall off from a rotten ladder

Aren't you ever coming brave?

I think is time you stop trying

The boy stepped into the dentist room

When he had reached the dentist room

Subject no. 29

We got some foods, blankets and fishing equipments

We ~~made some~~ new friend

Subject no. 30

The first week of school were

These four subject

People usually speaks

Is hard to pick up the proper languages

Social studies and science teaches us

We had learn a lot of work

But on the third week every one frightened

The nurse who were at the back

Don had to move towards the dentist room

Dick kick the nurse

Subject no. 31

I took my grip out and put it where they does checked the grips and boxes

When it was about half past four I take a jet plane

I went and play cards

Whilst I there playing snakes and ladder, I hear the pilot say

I see my aunt and I was happy to see her

She and her busband take my grip

Subject no. 31 (cont'd)

She kissed me... they all greet me

Later down in the afternoon we all went to walked

I went Buckingham Palace

When it was Saturday we all went to shop

When it was the last month for my holidays

She brought things for me to bring down when I going

Then we went home to have our launch and after we had eaten our launch

Next was Lennox turn

Lennox told the doctor his back tooth he feel hurting him.

The dentist told him since when it hurting him

Then he stop crying and the dentist take out the tooth

When he reached home .... he spit a bit of blood

He wasn't feeling no pains

He went to do a message in the shop for his mother

Then he bring the message and went and play

Later down when he come inside, he told his mother his gums hurting him and air go in it

When it was dinner time only drink alone he could do

When it did cure he said he would never went out when he extract his tooth

Subject no. 32

The dentist made Dan sat on a long chair and bend a light

The frighten boy sat nervously

Dan thank the dentist and he went home

Subject no. 32 (cont'd)

Her mum died of lack of food and her Dad died of a car accident

One day her uncle send a cable

Her sister was very please to see her

She got in a car accident

Subject no. 33

After a while I went in the shop

I came out with a piece of saltfish which I had took in the shop

I hesitate for a brief moment

The dog jumped on me and bit me

And so was my cheek and nose

The next morning I was brought to the hospital

After a few days it had cure

My eye and cheek and nose was cured

Subject no. 34

I didn't want to pass in the main road so I passed in a canefield

When I reached up at Bath Estate, I ran in my friend's house.

Subject no. 35

Because it did not have any water in pipes
When I got on the beach, it had many people there
I went and rest for a moment
I bathe all by myself....some of my friends called me
We went on shore and sit on the sand
After this we went on shore
I did not want to play, but they force me
We all bathe together
When I drive I went right under water
I did not drank
He saw a little boy went into the room
Many children had went home
When he got in the room
He open it and told the doctor

Subject no. 36

When it was the last month of my holidays

Subject no. 37

In the children ward
The nurse came out from the dentist office
The girl went into the dentist office
A few second later
Peter hold his mother's hand as they walk into the office
The nurse pull the lamp

Subject no. 37 (cont'd)

The dentist injected his gum, he start crying

In thirty minute he was in the dentist office

He start crying very loud

Subject no. 38

I fainted....I stay in the bath about fifteen minutes

In the room was full of many different equipments

He open his mouth as he was told

Subject no. 39

We were all busy parking the food

We reached by the riverside

Subject no. 40

My friends and I went and bathe

We went and eat our food

Some of us went by the sea-side and eat our lunch

When we finish eating we went.....

Towards the dentist office

The dentist made Jack sat on the floor

Jack's mother laugh

Subject no. 41

I was very happy...my sisters and brothers and I eat and drink

We played games...we enjoy ourselves

When he sat on the dentist chair

Subject no. 42

To the dentist office

When the dentist inject the gums he did not do anything

He open his mouth and soon after the tooth was out

I was very busy that day so I passed   a short cut

I was very frighten

Subject no. 43

She said she was going   the same place with me

When we reached we.....

Holding a touch   (meaning "torch")

When he reached into the room

Subject no. 44

The snake then jump at my leg and wrap around it

I jump.....I push it down

I strike it on the head, it was dead now

When I arrived I pick up my wood

The pig chase me

I ran in our house and stood trembling like feather

I drank water and said never me to go for wood again

Subject no. 44 (cont'd)

He was afraid of having his tooth extract

Of course he wish for that

All the way to the dentist office

The dentist slap him

Subject no. 45

To go into my bed

They ask me who made these things

It was not many so I gave them all

It did not border me at all

I bought some grapefruit for them

There is too cold to grow such fruits

They were to live the next day

When it was time to get dress

They phone to say that.....

Subject no. 46

My mother came out for food....and tell me if I not going up in country to spend August holiday

I jumped and kiss her

She brought me down to the market in the truck

Occasionally glancing towards the dentist office

His mother fan him until he got better

The dentist came and ask what was wrong

GROUP II

Subject no. 1

When I was up the tree I eat some sandwiches
The office door open and his mother brings him in
The dentist's slaps him
He dosen't fill anything
He tells the dentist's sorry

Subject no. 2

We had fry chicken
And whilse he slept he saw hisself in the dentist's office
With thoughts racin through his mind
He then watches all around
He then held his mother arm
It didn't hurt him plenty

Subject no. 3

Towards the dentist office

Subject no. 4

The boy frightened
The dentist saw how the little boy looking and called he and his mother in
A little girl at the back got a lash on her left knee

Subject no. 5

He is afraid to go in the dentist office

He is holding his mother's hand very tight

They had stop so we went by some friends

All on the ground was packed with stones

So we cleared there up in about 2 to 3 hours

Because all inside the showroom had glass

Subject no. 6

The dentist injected his gums and spray it

It was time to pull out the teath (reference is to one tooth)

When the ribs was finish

We was ready to lunch the boat

After the boat had being lunched

We was so happy

We made the money....by going different places

Subject no. 7

Me and my two friends were spending the holiday with them

We continued....we meet a sign

Subject no. 8

While the dentist is removing the teeth (reference is to one tooth)

When we reach a little distance, Mum saw a snake

There was nothing remained to see

Subject no. 9

He holds his mother's hand much more tighter

But next thing I knew

When it was about two in the morning, my family reached

Subject no. 10

The dentist ask him a few questions

But when he see that long needle he closes it

The dentist tell his mother

Subject no. 13

After I finish playing my Uncle and Aunt said

When we reach the beach my friend and I went

We played in the water and yell with joy

How it is happy when your parent go and spend holidays...

He smile back and waited for his turn

Subject no. 14

Mostly all the glasses were broken (reference to the glass panes of a showcase)

Towards the dentist office

He is waiting....for everything to past fast

He says that he wish he wasn't a coward

He is going in the dentists room

Subject no. 15

My friend and I decided to go by the sea-side
The fisherman got sea-weed and other thing
We collected our thing
The next day... we told our teacher what we experience
There he is trumbling nervously...He hold his mother hand tighter and tighter

He was call
He went up as brave as he could
They told him seat down
Quiet the dentist took out the tooth

Subject no. 16

The dentists gives him an injection

Subject no. 17

The boy was terrified of the dentists
But atlas they put him on the big seat

Subject no. 18

Looking like a 11-year old boy
When he came out from the dentists office
He is back to school to play with his friends

Subject no. 22

Then he starts to feel resless

All Dad tried to slow down the car he did not succeed

In that same moment we went into a car

We were both uncunscious

The people in the other car brought us to the hospital

Subject no. 23

The dentist office opened

His eyes was

Subject no. 24

I have experience my happiness

Sometime my freid are very kind to me but sometime he are not

When he want play

When I want to play I dose not leave him

I goes straight at his home to call him

We goes all round the gardens playing hide and sik

We plays till we become very tired

I tells him goodby

I have experience my happyness more again

When we finishes do our work

We goes on the beach

We play in the san

He looks at everybody goes in one by one

When he see he is coming nearer to the door

Subject no. 24 (cont'd)

He were trembling even more than before

He shakes his head he held his mother hands

Subject no. 25

A boy went to a dentist to take off a teeth (reference is to one teeth)

It had plenty people inside

His teeth was hurting him (reference is to one teeth)

He went on the dentist chair

I went at a family home on the Morne

I went to the table to help to put thing in other

Subject no. 26

Tears was coming down his eyes

We had soft drinks...and many other thing to eat

We had a tube.....a snecles

Lunch was ready so we eat our lunch

We went back in the water

Subject no. 27

The dentist told him to go back in the waiting room

Subject no. 28

Each time he watch the dentist door, he holds his mother's hand

Subject no. 28 (cont'd)

It was a sad experience I had the week before school open

Normally I enjoy myself more on the last week before school open

Subject no. 29

The happy moments was when....

The happiest moment was when Colin Croft boll Hendricks for a duck

I happy to when I heard

Hiss teeth was badly affected

His teeth was rooting

Tears came down his chicks

The dentise

He trembling like a thearther

Subject no. 30

One day Celia and I was having a bath in the beach

We started swimming, laughing and charting

I brought Celia on shore

Towards the dentist office

He told his mother there is a cool place ("there" used as pronoun)

Subject no. 31

We heard a knock on the door

Running in a guava bush

But could not escape from Daddy grip

Daddy already asked him what he want

Towards the dentist office

"Will it hurt?" he ask himself

Subject no. 32

Towards the dentist office

He thinks that the dentists will be rough to him

He thought it was he turn

The dentists (4)

He mother told him

The dentists told him to have a sit

Suddenly my teacher called to me and ask me if

She did not realized

I did not want her to notice that I was scared I stand up bravely and then answer her

Subject no. 34

A experience

When I went to bed I dream about it

My Mummy and Dad get up and asked me

I told her I dream about a picture

Subject no. 34 (cont'd)

One afternoon we went by our cousins

He had to make and operation

One eye of his close a little

His teeth is paining him (with reference to one tooth)

Wild the boy was sitting there

Talking to hisself

APPENDIX 2

SAMPLES OF COMPOSITIONS

Group I

A Frightening Experience

One Saturday afternoon I went to get wood, whilst cutting the wood I saw a snake, it's colour was yellow. It was on a tree, ready to leap at me, I grew frightened. I stood speechless gazed at the snake, and I just couldn't move or run. What was there to do. I felt afraid of screaming.

The snake then jump at my leg and wrap around it. I held my cutlass, but couldn't strike at it or else I would have my leg cut and would be at the hospital. I jump it still stayed, I push it down with the cutlass but the snake would'nt go. I screamed nobody heard me.

I stood there trembling with fear. I gazed at the snake with a pair of frightening eyes, as I gazed it went down and lay on the ground. I strike it on the head, it was dead now. I went on looking for the others while on my I met a dead snake. I thought I would see an alive one but I didn't.

I still went on my way but still frightened. I saw the other on a hill, so I passed under a large tree. There I met a wild pig which looked very fierce, I climbed a tree but it was useless, for there below, the pig starting digging the ground. I jumped from the tree and fell by the pig's leg.

I got up and starting run to the place where I killed the snake. When I arrived I pick up my wood and away I went down to the village. The pig chase me down to village and some men killed it. I ran in our house and stood trembling like feather, I drank water and said never me to go for wood again. What a frightening experience I had.

Group I

During the frightening strike

On the first day of strike that was on Tuesday 29th May, I heard some people shouting so I said what is that. I said in my mind maybe somebody fighting. But afterwards I heard my father telling my little brother please not to go on the street because you will get hurt by denfenceforce, so I said in my mind how is that what happen. Then I hearing my father calling me and saying get up Joan and put you clothes and go and meet your mother in the market so I said why and he told me that there is a demonstration and denfenceforce is leting go teargas and bullet and the people is sening stones after them.

The hole week past and it was a bit quite. Then a few days later I am hearing that Alliase France was burn down. A few weeks later I am hearing that Registry is on fire. Then we hearing people saying that if allyou don't want milk, sugar, flour, rice, butter, meat, glasses, spoons, forks, knifes, and other things. One Sunday morning at 10 o'clock we hearing two big tins of oil rolling down the and people runing to try to stop it so that they can get some oil to put in their food. People brake and open by Asta hotel, France, and other places. This is the end of my composition.

Group I

A Frightening Experience I Had

One bright sunny affternoon early in the month of May, I decided to talk a walk through the Bontanical Garden's which is not very far from my home.

When I was through having my lunch I took a bath, got dressed and started off.

About four houses past my home I met Cheryl and her little brother. I called her and asked her where she was going she said she was going the same place with me to get a plant for her teacher. So we went together.

When we reached Cheryl went on the eastern side of the garden's and I went on the western side to pick flowers when I reached I saw a tree with brilliant flowers the more I went the more I saw and I kept on picking and picking.

By and by nightfall was approaching. I was so lost in the flowers that I did not even realise that. After a while I got so tired that I sat down by a tree to rest. I was so tired I fell fast asleep.

When I woke up it was so dark that I could not find my way home. I kept walking and walking and walking and all of a sudden I heard a noise. I was so frightened I was afraid to move. The noise was coming closer and closer that I felt I screaming. I screamed and screamed until all of a sudden I saw a light and I began to feel a teeny tiny bit happy.

The light drew nearer and nearer until I saw that it was someone holding a touch. I ran up to the person and saw that it was my dad. I was so happy that I hugged him all the way home.

Group I

During the frightening Strike

On the first day of strike that was on Tuesday 29th May, I heard some people shouting so I said what is fighting. But after wards I heard my father telling my little brother please not to go on the street because you will get furt by denfenceforce, so I said in my mind how is that what happen. Then I hearing my father calling me and saying get up Joan and put you clothers and go and meet your mother in the market so I said why and he told me that there is a demonstration and denfenceforce is leting go teargas and bullet and the people is sening stones after them.

The hole week past and it was a bit quite. Then a few days later I'am hearing that Alliase France was burn down. A few weeks later I'am hearing that Registry is on fire. Then we hearing people saying that if allyou don't want milk, sugar, flour, rice, butter, meat, glasses, spoons, forks, knifes, and others big tins of oil rolling down the and people runing to try to stop it so that they can get some oil to put in their food. People brake and open by Asta hotel, France, and other places. This is the end of my Composition.

Group I

A Frightening Experience

One bright sunny day I was sent on an errand down the river side. I was very busy that day, so I passed a shortcut. On my way I saw a beautiful flower path, with many roses.

I decided to take some flowers home, so I stopped and picked them. Near the flower path there was a tall thorn bush with old wooden log around it.

I heard a very squeaky sound coming from the thorn bush, it was a little baby snake I was very frighten, and the baby snake was coming towards me.

I ran and screamed all the way down the river side. As I arrived home I told my mother the news and gave her the flowers.

Group I

A Frightening Experience

One Sunday afternoon, it was about 2 o'clock. I was crossing Queen Mary Street. I was close to the St. Martin School. A little girl by the name of Belinda, was knock down by a car. I got frightened when I saw her under the car.

She was taken to the hospital immediately. She was admitted at 3 o'clock. When the doctor was through, he told the driver of the car, that the child hand and leg is broken. I got shock when he told him that.

After a while the driver took the child to her home. When he reach, he put her lie on her bed. He stayed there for a long while. He explan all what that had happened. When he was through explaning, he gave the child mother some money and went.

Group I

A frighting Experience

One cloudy afternoon, most of my family including me, were sitted in our drawing room talking about my sister's wedding. My brother who was not with us came in and asked if we heard the weather forecast, we said that we hadn't. So, he told us that the reporter said that there was a storm coming up at about midnight, and that we were to let loose all animals.

I was the only one with a thought of real danger, and that was a landslide. Because we lived at the bottom of a mountain and the soil was loose. Many a time we heard stones rolling, but did not worry about any danger of a flat on the mountain where the stones stop. But that afternoon I was scared of big stones which were to heavy to stay on the flat, because they were a good distance up the mountain, and came down with speed.

That night before going to sleep, I said my prayers asking Jesus to give me a peaceful nights sleep and drive away the horrid thoughts which kept coming into my mind.

At midnight, there was a storm as Donald, my brother had said, I was the only one who was not disturbed by the loud, frightening thunder. After about five minutes after the commencement of the storm, a cry rang through the house, 'Landslide, Landslide'. I woke with a start only to hear the rumbling of stones. Only one thought came to my mind, and that was to run. As I ran I colided with my dad who said that the others were in front. I ran as fast as my legs could carry me. We got safely on to the main road where a lot of fuss was going on. I was happy to see the rest of my family safe and sound. Have you ever had such an experience.

Group I

How I Learned To Swim

One sunny Sunday afternoon, my mother told me that we were going to spend an afternoon by the river. I was not very happy about it at all. Anyway, I went to look for my brother and sister who were playing Hopscotch in the yard. As soon as I told them, they started dancing around me, they were so happy.

At about 4 o'clock we were all busy parking the food in my Uncle's pick-up. About half an hour later, we were speeding towards the river. As soon as we reached by the riverside, my brother and sister took off their clothes and jumped into the water, leaving me standing all alone, exept for my father and mother who were standing a good distance away from me. For awhile I was afraid of going any nearer to the river, then I walked up to the water's edge, and just turned my back to watch my parents enjoying themselves when I missed my footing on a stone and fell into the water with a splash.

I felt myself sinking bellow the surface. I at once remembered all the practice my sister used to give me. I stretched out my hands and started beating my both legs at the same time, but to my disgrace I remained the same way. I could hold my breath no longer, when I felt myself being pulled upwards. When I did open my eyes I found myself lying on my bed. From that day on I could never forget the day I nearly drowned.

Group I

Composition

There he is in the waiting room nervously clutching his mother's hand and occasionally glancing toward the dentist's office. His heart is beating as if going to fall out and he is grinning with pain. He sobs and trembles but his mother is trying to comfort him but in vain. This boy is waling like a slow breeze passing through a tree. His soft hearted mother tells him it will be off with no pain but he has heard other boys say (his friends) how terrable it was when removing a thooth, so he has in mind how painful it would be.

Now, the last minute has come, his eyes streming with tears he sat strait up. His mother lifts him up very tenderly and takes him to the dentist's office. The pair went into the dentise office with pale face and tears in his eyes. The dentise takes the insument for removing theeth and take out the tooth without any pain. The boy's glowing face looked up at his smiling mother. How happy he was the tooth had remove without any pain!

Group I

A Visit to the Dentist

There he is in the waitting room, nervously clutching his mother's hand and occasionally glancing towards the dentist's office. At last his turn came, he began shouting. So his mother went with him in the dentist's office, there the dentist gave an injection, he began crying his mother got hold of him by his hands and brought him to the waiting room.

Again his turn came and this time it was to remove the teeth he then grabbed his mother's hand shouting come, come. So she went with him the dentist told him to open his mouth and he opened his mouth and the teeth was removed. Then he got up from the chair and left the room and went home.

Group I

Teddy went to be Extracted

There he was is in the waiting room, nervously clutching his mother's hand and occasionally glancing towards the dentist office waiting to be extract. Teddy was a very coward boy and never had extracted before.

Teddy saw a little boy coming out of the dentist's room crying. Teddy was much more afraid and began to cry. When his mother heard him crying she said gently "Don't cry, be brave boy, it will not hurt". The Teddy replied "But the little boy was crying". "That because not brave" said his mother, whipping his eyes. "If you go in there praying to God, so that it will not hurt it will never hurt, you said you wanted to be a hero, didn't you, well to be one you have to a very brave man". "Okay I be brave" replied Tedd again.

Soon the dentist came out of the room and called on Teddy. When he went in the dentist room he was still afraid but he remembered what his mother told him so he acted brave again.

The dentist lift him up and put him to sit on the chair, then watched his teeth. He thought the dentist was selfish, but when she smile for him he became much more braver, than ever. He did not make a sound after when the dentist extract his tooth.

After extracting, the dentist put a cotton in his mouth and gave him a packet of sweets. He said thanks, and went to met his mother. This mother did not see him crying so she knew he did not cry and that she had a very brave son.

Group II

A clear picture of my experience

The car crash

One ealy Sunday morning, dad and I thought that we should go for a drive to the country. We left home at two o clock, when every body was slepping. I did not wake up my brothers and sisters because dad told me don't disturb them.

Dad and my self were the only ones on the road that morning. We were half way when dad pressed the brake and the car did not even slow down much less to stop. When I saw that I began to get afriad because dad was driving at sixty-five miles per an hour.

The car was driving with no brakes for a good while when we came to a blind corner. All dad tried to slow down the car he did not succeed. In that same momment we went into a car in the same corner, then terned over three times on the road, and then we were in the see.

We were both uncuncious, when the people in the other car brought us to the hospital. Five hours after I found my self in the hospital with about twenty bandages on my body.

Group II

Recall a personal experience you wish to share with a friend.

"Frightening"

I recall an experience I went through on Saturday 23rd June 1979. Our house was under attack by huge stones. It was very frightening. Although stones were being fired from all directions, daddy had his gun defending himself.

That same night daddy told us we had to leave the house if in case they came back. They had stop. So we went by some friends in a car. We slept there for the night and went home next morning.

All on the ground was packed with stones and all our showroom glasses were broken. Daddy had told us to leave it, so we left it for about two days and the third day he said let's clear them up before the pieces of glass cut people. There's always some small boys hanging around playing. So we cleared there up in about 2 to 3 hours. Because all inside the showroom had glass, stones. While one or two of them are cleaning inside, we are cleaning outside, picking up all glass, and stones and bottles with a bass broom.

I wouldn't like to go through that again.

Group II

Composition on

"A personal experience I wish to share with my friend"

One Saturday afternoon I went for a walk. I walked for miles and miles until I came to a spooky, old house. I then realized that I was at a house which people said was haunted. I started back in fright but curiousity got the better of me.

I then started to explore the gardens. I saw a mango tree in the distance so I sauntered over to see if I could find any mangoes. I started to climb the tree but fell down in terror as I saw an ugly old head peering at me through the leafy branches. I was stunned and sat still. I quickly recovered, got up and ran towards the house. On the way I tripped over a log and fell headlong on some stones. I reckoned that I lay unconscious for about fifteen minutes. When I finally came round I saw a movement in the bushes then piercing dark eyes glared at me. I dndn't wait to see more, but ran through the archway that lead into the house.

The corridor was filled with cobwebs and the spiders lay dangling loose. A shiver went up my spine. I realized it was dark and suddenly I saw an eerie light at the end of the corridor I followed the light and saw queer pictures and movements and I thought I was on a ghost train. Afterwards I heard queer noises as if ghosts were coming to life, then suddenly heard a high-pitched scream. I looked round in fright then saw a door opening and closing again and again. I went through it and was delighted to see sunlight coming through. I ran thankfully outside only to hear "BOO". I turned to see what made that noise only to see my younger brother and his friends giggling in a corner. Then the truth dawned on me that they had tricked me. I was vexed.

I never wish to encounter an experience like that again, never!

Group II

Composition

A Frightening experience

It was a bright Sunday morning, the birds were singing, there were lots of butterflies in the garden and the dogs in the neighbourhood were barking loudly and playing happily together. I got out of bed because I heard mother calling me. I put on a T-shirt and jeans and flew out of my bedroom. I ran downstairs to find breakfast ready and every member of my family eating except me. "Huh" said mother, "You're the only sleepy head in the family". I told her I quite agreed with her statement and I then sat down to eat it was bacon and eggs for breakfast with a glass of milk and a glass of juice and if you wanted you could get cereal. Father said that they had planned to go to the seaside so after breakfast I must get my self ready this I did and at nine o'clock my Father, Mother, Stephane and Antonia my sisters and I left our house and started off to the sea.

The sea was a lovely blue but the waves were gigantic. My Father said that the cause of that must be that mount soufriere was erupting in Guadeloupe. Anyhow we all went in the water was warm at first but then it began to get cool and then cold the sun was blotted out by heavy dark clouds and a terrific wind was blowing. I shouted to dad "what's happening to Mount Soufriere you want to tell me its causing all this?" I got a nasty stare from him if looks could kill

I'd have been dead. "Come on in", said dad it's getting worse. I started to swim to shore I was a good way out when I reached the shores edge just getting out of the water a great wave about eight metres tall threw me down and pulled me far out to a place where not even my father could stand up and he is about six feet nine inches tall. I began to drift farther out and I could feel the current pulling me. I was coming closer and closer to some horrid rocks that have torn other people apart then I brushed against something I turned around and saw a bouy I caught hold of it and I hung on for about three hours.

Then suddenly the wind ceased to blow the clouds moved the sun shone down and the sea was calm calm enough for me to swim back it looked but I knew the currents would make it impossible my best chance was to keep holding on to the bouy. Then I heard a throbbing noise and I saw a motor boat coming out to get me. They pulled me on board. "Your parents called us", said one of them, "but it was impossible to come out here." "Never fainted eh" asked another, "you've got stamina".

They took me home my mother made a terrible fuss about me and my father said to her "shut up you're getting too excited". "Oh dear" exclaimed Mother "thats true" she continued "the poor child will get excited. I was glad she was thinking in that direction usually what father had said would have started a row. I was dried and put to bed for two days I was up and about very soon but I never again went far out to swim when we went to the sea.

Group II

Composition

A personal experience I wish to share with a friend

I had a very frightening experience and I wish to share it with a friend. This experience was not in Dominica so, I feel my friend would be happy to share it with me. It was in Miami.

Last year 1978 for the August holidays I went to Disney World in Florida in Miami. I went to see Snow White's Scary Adventures and they were really scary. I saw a witch sending a box of jewels towards me but it was not a real witch, it was one worked by machine. I also saw something like a ghost and it scared me very much.

When I came back to Dominica I thought of my friend. I thought of experiencing that with her for my second time. I would like to share this with her, I think she will like it eve though it is scary.

Group II

"A boy waiting to be seen by the dentist's"

"There he is in the waiting room nervously clutching his mother's hand and occasionally glancing towards the dentist's office." He sat there trembling so bad as to be shaking the bench he is sitting on. Starts to cry every time he hears noises coming from the dentist's office. Trembles every time the door to the office opens thing its his turn.

Next its his turn. He trembles, starts to cry. The office door open and his mother brings him in. He starts to fight for all he is worth. The dentist's slaps him and puts him in the chair. The tooth is pulled out and he dosen't fill anything.

He starts to cry and says he is sorry for being so troublesome. He tells his mum he won't be afraid next time. He tells the dentist's sorry.

Group II

Composition

"There he is in the waiting room nervously clutching his mother's hand and occasionally glancing towards the dentist's office." "Oh dear" he thinks "this is my first time to the dentist I am so frightened. I am behaving foolishly I know for a boy of twelve years but boy just coming here has scared the daylights out of me. The place is so spotlessly clean I feel sick and the air seems to be sprayed with some kind of medicine." His hands are clutching hard at his mothers they change colour. His face goes white he looks pale all over. "You are feeling very nervous dear aren't you?" inquired his Mother. He goes red. "A little I supose" he says. His concience says to him "ooh what a teller of yarns you are you can't even stand up!" "Of course I can't" he says aloud. "Of course you cant what" asked his mother. "Er nothing" he answers. He says to his concience silently "you monkey see what you made me do!" If you were in my place you'd be every bit as frightened as I am.

The door opens a patient comes out his hand is across his mouth he is crying the tears are running down his cheeks but no noise comes from his mouth he leaves the waiting room. The boy feels even more sick. "Next" said the doctor and in went the next patient when he came out he too was crying. The last person went in the boy feels like the end of the world has come dooms day has arrived. This time the doctor takes alot of time with his patient the patient is a woman when she came out she too was crying. "Next" said the dentist. The boys mother pulled him up he tries to stand he accomplishes this "come on" said the dentist I havent all day you know." "Yes" says the boy and he faints.

Group II

Composition

"There he is in the waiting room nervously clutching his mother's hand and occasionally glacing towards the dentist's office."

"He sits quietly wondering what will the dentist do to him." "He is afraid of the dentist and wonders why there are so many holes in his teeth."

"His turn comes quite suddenly. He cluches his mother's arm still more tightly". "He gets up with his mother and walks with trembling legs from the waiting room to the dentist's office." "He looks quite frightened."

"The dentist ask him a few questions he answers them quite nervously." Quite suddenly the dentist told him to open his mouth for him to have his injection and he does this quite willingly but when he see that long needle he closes it."

"With the help of some nurses the dentist is able to give him his injection." Whilst he is having this he screams and cries and shouts that the other people in the waiting room think he must have a very hard time with the dentist."

"The dentist tell his mother that she has to bring her son another day because he can't get him to do anything sensible and he has patients today." "The little boy is happy to hear these words but is angry with himself to get the dentist impatient with him."

Group II

Composition

"There he is in the waiting room nervously clutching his mother's hand and occasionally glancing towards the dentists office" He is a little boy so you can imagine how he is, he is trembleing very much he looks at every body goes in one by one. He is coming whiter and whiter when he see he is coming nearer to the door.

When it was his turn I could not look at the boy any more because he even trembleling even more than before and lips became whiter than before. He was just four years and began to cry.

He stamps his feet on the ground he swigs his hand he shakes his head he hold his mother hands tighter than before he trembled and trembled tell at last he went inside, you could imagine his actions.

Group II

Composition

One day a boy went to a dentist to take off a teeth. It had plenty people inside so he waited for a long time then his teeth was hurting him so much he glanced towards the dentist office he went inside and sat down on a chair then he the dentist was through so he went on the dentist chair and showed the doctor the bad teeth he had. Then before the dentist took off the teeth the dentist told him how comes you glanced at the door and came him. He said only teeth is hurting him so I opened the door.

Then the dentist told him you must wait your turn next time. Then he sat on the chair and the dentist took off the teeth.

When the dentist took off his teeth he screamed then his mother opened the door and came in to see what was wrong.

APPENDIX 3

SAMPLE OF LETTER SENT TO SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The Principal
(School)
Roseau,
Dominica.

Dear ....,

May I express appreciation of your willingness to provide a group of participants for my proposed research project.

The purpose of the study is to examine the written errors of primary school students in Dominica, in particular, their syntactical and morphological errors. To that end, two topics are being assigned, and these will be presented to you on the day of data collection by my sister, Muriel Monelle.

My suggestion is that each of the topics be presented by the class teacher as part of a normal writing lesson. This would facilitate generating of ideas, and bring to the surface any questions which the students may have concerning the directions. Once actual writing has commenced, however, I request that each student be allowed to work on his own i.e. without assistance from peers or class teacher. (The use of dictionaries is permissible.) You will appreciate, I am sure, that the accuracy and value of the data will depend upon the extent to which the scripts represent the students' own efforts. Miss Monelle will be responsible for collecting the scripts from the class teacher immediately after the writing has been completed.

I look forward to discussing my findings with you upon my return to Dominica.

I remain,
Yours Sincerely

Patricia M. Monelle